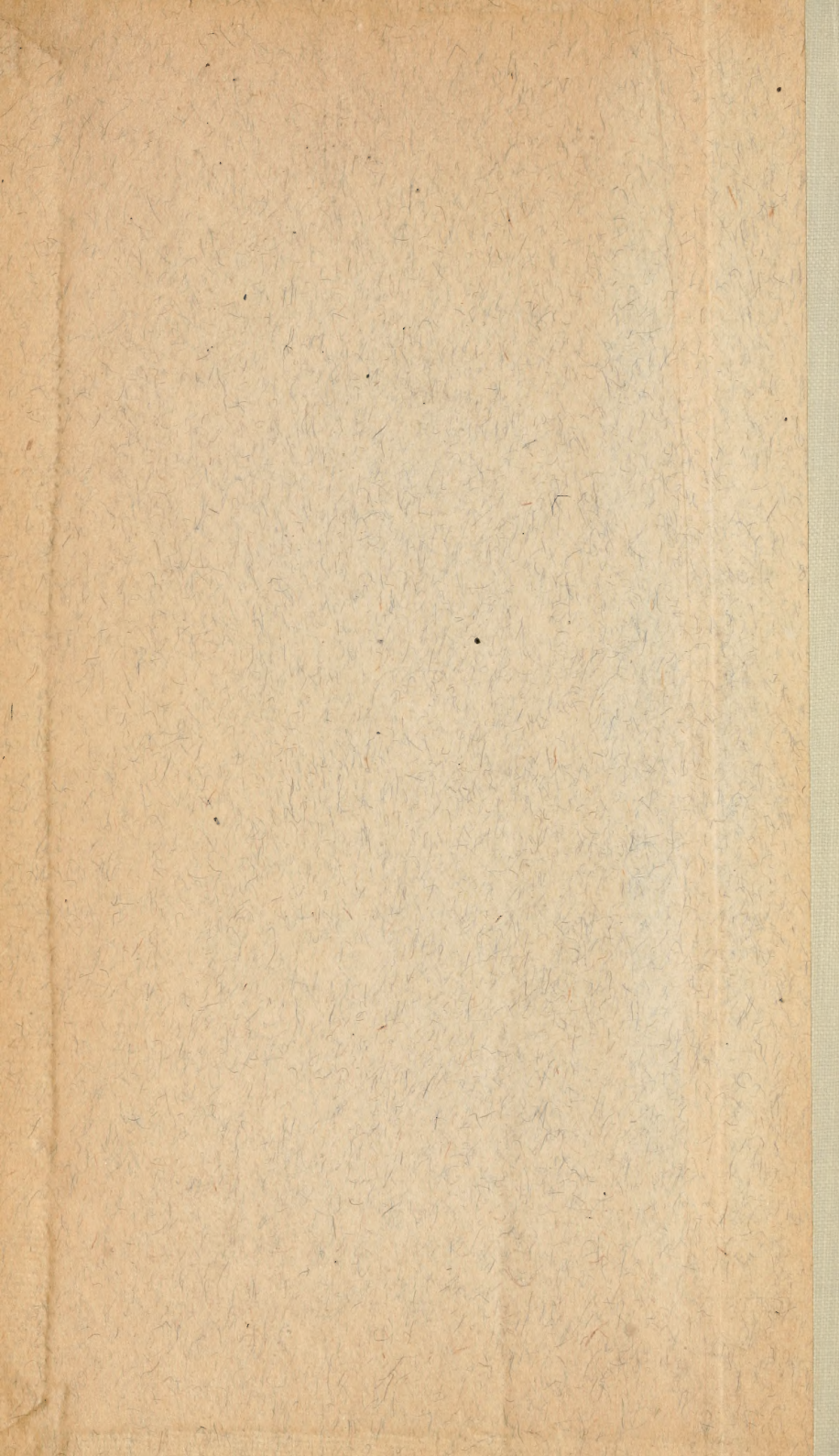


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ILLUSTRATED BIOGRAPHY,

OR

MEMOIRS OF THE GREAT AND THE GOOD

OF

ALL NATIONS AND ALL TIMES;

COMPRISING

SKETCHES OF EMINENT STATESMEN, PHILOSOPHERS,
HEROES, ARTISTS, REFORMERS, PHILANTHROPISTS,
MECHANICS, NAVIGATORS, AUTHORS, POETS,
DIVINES, SOLDIERS, SAVANS, ETC.

By CHARLES C. SAVAGE,

AUTHOR OF "THE WORLD, GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND STATISTICAL," ETC.

"Lives of great men all remind us,
We can make our lives sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time."

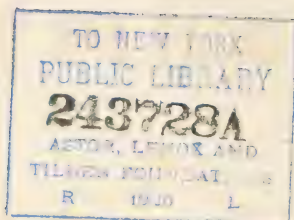
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NEW YORK: IVISON & PHINNEY.

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P R E F A C E .

HISTORY has been aptly termed "Philosophy teaching by example." True as the axiom may be in a general sense, it applies with especial force to that volume of historic record which presents for contemplation the lives and characters of those members of the human family who, whether as statesmen, patriots, or warriors—as workers in the attractive fields of literature, science, and the arts—as devoted laborers in the cause of benevolence and charity—or as humble and earnest disciples of the cross—have

"Won the wreath of fame,
And written on Memory's scroll a deathless name."

The true province of history being more properly the biography of nations, in its study we gain a knowledge of men only so far as they may have been prominent actors in the events recorded. We may see the military chieftain amid the smoke and furor of the battlefield, and the statesman in the halls of legislation—we may catch glimpses of the man of letters among his books—of the artist in his studio—of the philanthropist on his errand of charity and love—but they are transient and incidental, while the motor or mainspring of action is concealed from our view. Where history thus furnishes but an imperfect sketch, biography presents the finished picture. It portrays the man of eminence in private life as well as in his public career. By its aid we trace his course "from the cradle to the grave"—we see him in the freshness of youth, perhaps struggling against an adverse current, buoyant with hope—and we see him in the noonday of existence, when the aspirations of early life have ripened into the stern realities of manhood—and from this meridian height we follow him on the declining plane of life's journey to its close. The knowledge thus acquired of human nature and of human character—of the principles and incentives to action of those who have passed from earth, leaving behind them "footprints on the sands of time," renders biography, to the young especially, an eminently useful study. While it points out and enables them to avoid the dangerous quicksands upon which, in the "voyage of life," the barks of some have unfortunately wrecked, the examples of others (of which this volume contains many instances) who, by industry, energy, and perseverance, have risen from comparative obscurity to positions of eminence and usefulness, are an encouragement to honorable exertion, which can scarcely be too highly estimated.

In a work of the extended and general scope of the present one, that minuteness of detail to be found in volumes devoted to the biography of a single, or, at most, of a limited number of individuals, will not be looked for; nor, on the other hand will it be expected to possess the completeness, in a numerical sense, of the ponderous biographical dictionary. The design, in its preparation has been, to embrace within its covers sketches of the more prominent of those eminent persons of all ages and of all nations, whose *names*, to the popular ear, are "as familiar as household words," while the incidents of their lives are known to a comparatively few. The field of selection has been almost unlimited, and it therefore can scarcely be presumed that names have not been omitted and others inserted whose position, in the judgment of some, should be reversed; or that the memoirs have uniformly a fullness of detail in proportion to their comparative importance. Yet it is hoped that the volume will be found as faultless in these respects as could be expected, when its comprehensive character, and the wide diversity of research its preparation required, are taken into consideration. It is also believed that no sketch has found a place upon its pages the subject of which can not justly rank with either the "Great" or the "Good."

The greater proportion of the following memoirs have been prepared expressly for the work, and in those instances where the Editor has availed himself of the labors of others, the subject-matter has been so materially modified, either by abridgment, by the addition of important and interesting facts, or in being altered in essential particulars to correspond with what was deemed more reliable testimony, that simple justice to the authors of the original sketches requires that he should assume the responsibility of them in their present form. They have been chronologically arranged, and extending, as they do, through a period of three thousand years, they may be found to possess an incidental interest, as types of successive eras in the world's history, and as illustrating the progress in civilization, arts, &c., of various nations, at different periods of their existence. Many of the engravings, also, have an historic value as delineations of the costumes of different countries and times, and through them may be traced the changes in apparel which have occurred during past ages.

Without further prefatory remark the volume is submitted to the judgment of the public, with the expression of the earnest hope that sufficient interest and information may be gathered from its pages to justify the money and time expended in its purchase and perusal.

NEW YORK, May 2, 1853.

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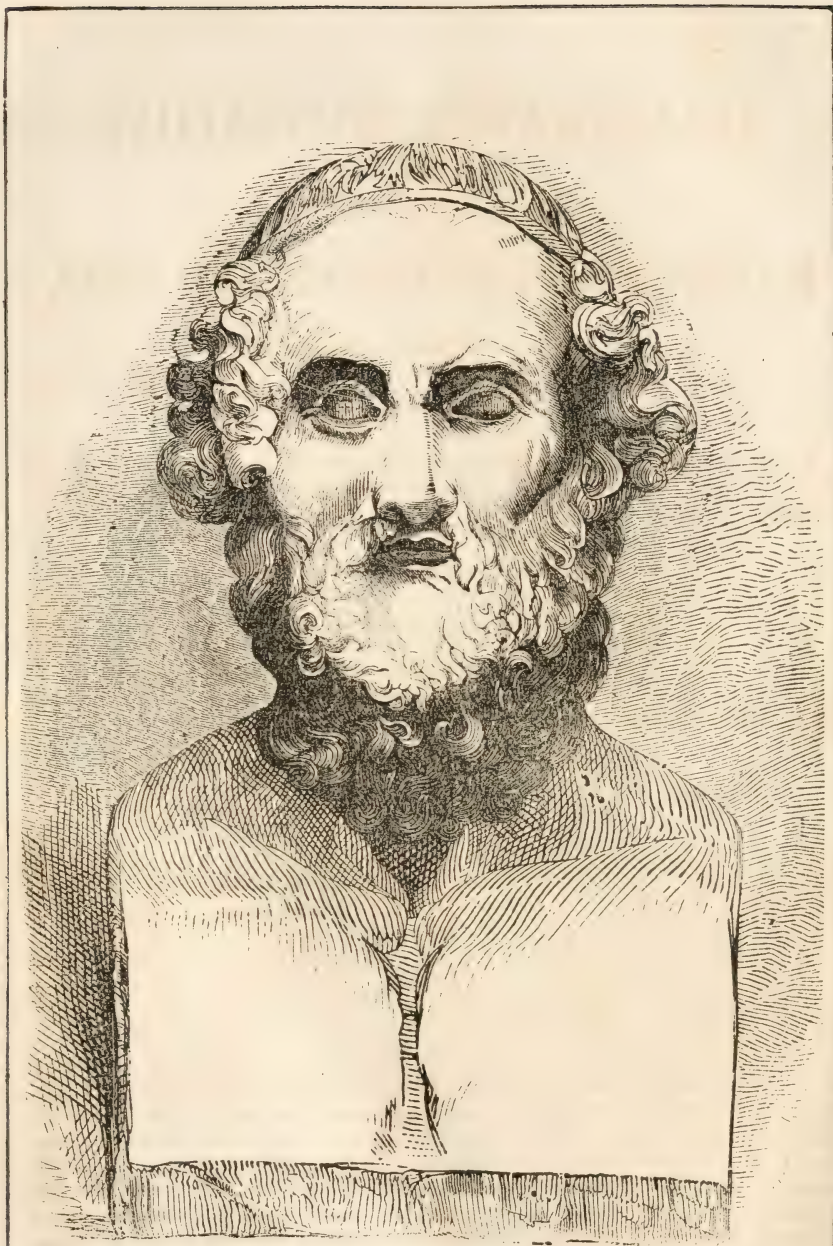
MEMOIRS OF THE GREAT AND GOOD.

HOMER.

A VARIETY of stories, many of them evidently fabulous, have been related of the birth and life of Homer, the father of poetry. One account, in the life ascribed to Plutarch, agreeably to the genius of the age, gives him a divine descent. Critheis, a girl of the little island of Ios, in the Ægean sea, about the time of the Ionic migration (B. C. 1044), became engaged in an amour with a demigod or dæmon attendant on the Muses. Abandoning her home in shame, she was taken captive by robbers or pirates, was carried to Smyrna, and sold to Mæon, king of the Lydians, who married her. The name of Mæon, as his reputed parent, occurs in other versions of Homer's history. Hence he is called Mæonides (the son of Mæon), as when Milton ("Paradise Lost," iii., 33) couples him with another bard, his fellow in misfortune:—

"These other two, equalled with me in fate,
So were I equalled with them in renown,
Blind Thamyris and blind Mæonides."

The life of Homer which is ascribed to Herodotus (and which, though traditionary, we are bound to receive, in the absence of contemporaneous information), makes him the grandson of Menalippus, an Athenian, who went to live at Cumæ, where he married the daughter of Homyres, and had by her a child, called Critheis, who was left an orphan, in the care of Cleonax. This man betrayed his trust, and seduced his ward, who, going to a festival on the banks of the river Meles, was delivered of a male infant, to whom she gave the name of Melesigenes (born of Meles), by which Homer is very generally known. Being without any means of support, Critheis went to spin wool for a schoolmaster named Phemius, who married her, and adopted her son. After the death of Phemius, this youth conducted the school with reputation and profit, until Mentès, the master of a ship, induced him to leave home and travel. In their wanderings they touched at Ithaca, where Mentor, a man of fortune, entertained them, and related those adventures of Ulysses which are embodied in the Odyssey. Here began the disease which caused Homer's blindness. On this misfortune he returned to Smyrna; but found his place filled up and his occupation at an end. He removed to Cumæ, where his poetical powers obtained praise, but not reward—the citizens alleging that they could not maintain all the blind men (Homéroï). Hence he was afterward called by the name of Homer; of which, however, half a dozen more derivations, equally fanciful, are given. At Phocæa a schoolmaster named Theostorides maintained him, on condition of being allowed to transcribe his poems.



Homer.—From a Bust in the British Museum, London, England.

but this faithless friend took the copies to Chios, and produced them as his own. Homer followed him thither, drove him from the field, obtained wealth, married, and had two daughters; and in later times Chios had a family of Homeridæ, who claimed to be the descendants of Homer, but who are rather esteemed to have been a society of bards, poets themselves, and, in addition, the professional reciters of the Homeric and other ancient poems preserved and handed down by memory from father to son. It is further said that he died, while voyaging from Chios to Athens, in Ios, an island of the Ægean sea.

There is nothing except the allusion to the art of writing which is manifestly fabulous in this account: we can not, however, receive it as of historical credit, because there is no historical evidence in its favor, and the book from which it is taken is an admitted forgery. Other authors, to increase the pathos and wonders of the story, have added a variety of circumstances concerning Homer's wanderings, and have made him travel as a mendicant, earning a casual subsistence by his songs, through the chief cities of Greece. Many of these afterward, when his fame was at its height, contended for the honor of having given birth to the divine poet:—

“Seven Grecian cities strove for Homer dead,
Through which the living Homer begged his bread.”

These are enumerated in a Greek epigram—

“Smyrna, Rhodes, Colophon, Salamis, Ios, Argos, Athenæ.”

Other cities, however, have laid claim to the same honor. Of Homer's life from his own writings, we know nothing. Nothing concerning his personal existence can be said to rest on anything like historical proof. Even the time in which he lived is uncertain. Herodotus places it 400 years before himself, and this agrees tolerably with the usually received computations, which fix him near 300 years after the date of the Trojan war, and about 900 before the birth of Christ. Sir I. Newton, in his system of chronology, brings both these dates considerably later. The weight of evidence, as far as it exists, leads us to suppose that he was born at Smyrna, and an Ionian by descent; and therefore later than the great movement of Greeks into Asia, commonly called the Ionic migration, which is said to have occurred B. C. 1044. All that is related of Homer, more particularly, is either fabulous narration or indirect and doubtful inference from the contents of his poems. Even their history is very obscure. The first fact (if it merits to be so called) concerning them is, that Lycurgus, the celebrated Spartan lawgiver, obtained them in Asia, and having observed that they abounded in moral and political rules of conduct, carried them back into Greece. The next recorded fact is, that about B. C. 600, Solon, the celebrated Athenian lawgiver, appointed that the rhapsodists (of whom we shall speak presently), in contending for the prize of recitation at the public festivals called Panathenæa, should not recite detached portions indiscriminately, but should proceed in order, and that where one left off another should begin. The third recorded fact is, that half a century later, more or less, Pisistratus the Athenian, or one of his sons, collected and arranged in their present order the scattered fragments of the books of Homer. From this time we may consider Homer as familiar to the Greeks in the form in which we now have him.

Except the works of Hesiod, who is considered by some the elder, by some the contemporary, but by most the junior of Homer, and perhaps one or two hymns, no Greek poetry extant ascends nearly to the antiquity of the Iliad and Odyssey. After Homer, however, a class called Cyclic poets flourished, so called because they made up the whole circle of the Trojan war and its consequences, by relating the adventures of the several heroes concerned therein. Of their poems nothing but a few fragments remain. We must therefore con-

sider them as much inferior in excellence to the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, which from the earliest time of which we have accounts of manners were the delight of the Greeks, at least of the Athenians, concerning whose private life we have the most minute information. They were taught in the schools, sung or recited at private entertainments, repeated at public games and festivals for the delight of assembled meetings. So to recite them was the occupation of a class of men called rhapsodists, from a Greek word which may be translated literally "stitchers of song," whose occupation has been described in the following terms:—"They chanted, sung, or recited poems, chiefly, at least in the earliest times, of their own composition, at the tables of princes, and in public assemblies. They were held in high esteem, and even veneration, more especially in the earliest periods. Then they were the sole depositaries of the religion, the moral precepts, and the old and favorite legends of the people among whom they lived. Though there were few arts distinctly marked out at that time as cultivated by peculiar classes, the bard had a profession of his own, which was regarded as more venerable than any other. Whether he resided constantly in some principal city, or travelled through various states, he was looked up to as a superior being, welcomed and honored at the feasts of kings, and revered as the favorite of heaven. He moved about as a recorder of the old and loved traditions of the people; and must have been heard with delight by those in whom he called up again all the associations of childhood, and who renewed their happiest days in listening to his songs."

Bards of this class, as appears by the introduction of them in the *Odyssey*, were held in high honor at the time when the Homeric poems were written. Such men, by constant exercise, obtained a wonderful facility and power of memory. It appears from Plato to have been no uncommon thing for an Athenian to have the whole of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* by heart; and those who were reciters by profession may readily be conceived to have possessed a much larger stock of poetical learning. Indeed this will seem the less remarkable, when we consider how many parts a popular actor of our own time will preserve distinctly and perfectly impressed on his mind. Such a stock of poetry a father might gradually communicate to his son, or a master to his pupil; and no doubt it was by means of a succession of such men (as in the case of the Chian Homeridæ above mentioned) that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, the most ancient compositions extant, except some parts of the Hebrew scriptures, were preserved during the ages which elapsed between their first delivery and the commission of them to writing. For it may now be considered as a settled point among learned men, the use of writing in Greece, as applicable to the preservation of such compositions, was greatly subsequent to the Homeric age.

The noble head of Homer given on the second page of this sketch, is the ideal representation of the immortal bard; such as the genius of ancient art conceived him to have been in form and feature. It is copied from an antique bust of admirable workmanship, contained among the Townley marbles in the British museum. It is hardly necessary to say that no *portrait* of Homer can possibly exist, since he lived long before the art of imitating men's features was invented. But as we find in Grecian sculpture a certain cast of countenance regularly given to the national deities, so that little or no doubt ever exists whether a statue is meant to represent one god or another, so there is a recognised countenance (how ancient we can not tell) ascribed to Homer. The bust represents him in the character in which he is best known—

"The blind old man of Scio's rocky isle"—

with that elevated, tranquil, and reflective character befitting one whose inward vision was so clear and piercing, and mind replete with images of beauty and sublimity.

LYCURGUS.

LYCURGUS, the celebrated Spartan legislator, son of Eunomus, king of Sparta, is supposed to have been born about B. C. 898. His elder brother Polydectes, who succeeded to the throne on the death of his father, soon after died, and left the kingdom to him; but when he learned that the widow of Polydectes would have issue, he refused to marry her, though she wished to strengthen him on his throne by destroying her own son Charilaus, and leaving him in the peaceful possession of the crown. The integrity with which he acted, when guardian of his nephew Charilaus, united with the disappointment and the resentment of the queen, raised him many enemies, and he at last yielded to their satire and malevolence, and retired to Crete; but he returned home at the earnest solicitations of his countrymen. The disorder which reigned at Sparta induced him to reform the government; and the more effectually to execute his undertaking, he had recourse to the oracle of Delphi. He was received by the priestess of the oracle with every mark of honor, his intentions were warmly approved, and he was called the friend of gods, and himself rather god than man. After such a reception from the most celebrated oracle of Greece, Lycurgus found no difficulty in reforming the abuses of the state, and all were equally anxious in promoting a revolution which had received the sanction of heaven. The first act of Lycurgus was the establishment of a senate, which was composed of twenty-eight senators, whose authority preserved the tranquillity of the state, and maintained a due and just equilibrium between the kings and the people, by watching over the intrusions of the former, and checking the seditious convulsions of the latter. All distinction was destroyed; and by making an equal and impartial division of the land among the members of the commonwealth, Lycurgus banished luxury, and encouraged the useful arts. The use of money, either of gold or silver, was forbidden; and the introduction of heavy brass and iron coin brought no temptations to the dishonest, and left every individual in the possession of his effects without any fears of robbery or violence. All the citizens dined in common, and no one had greater claims to indulgence and luxury than another. The intercourse of Sparta with other nations was forbidden, and few were permitted to travel. The youths were intrusted to the public master as soon as they had attained their seventh year, and their education was left to the wisdom of the laws. They were taught early to think, to answer in a short and laconic manner, and to excel in sharp repartee. They were instructed and encouraged to carry things by surprise, but if ever the theft was discovered, they were subjected to a severe punishment. Lycurgus was happy and successful in establishing and enforcing these laws, and by his prudence and administration the face of affairs in Lacedæmon was totally changed, and it gave rise to a set of men distinguished for their intrepidity, their fortitude, and their magnanimity. After this, Lycurgus retired from Sparta to Delphi, or, according to others to Crete; and before his departure, he bound all the citizens of Lacedæmon by a solemn oath, that neither they nor their posterity would alter, violate, or abolish the laws which he had established before his return. He soon after put himself to death, and he ordered his ashes to be thrown into the sea, fearful lest, if they were carried to Sparta, the citizens should call themselves freed from the oath which they had taken, and empowered to make a revolution. The wisdom and the good effect of the laws of Lycurgus have been firmly demonstrated at Sparta, where, for 700 years, they remained in force; but the legislator has shown himself inhumane in ordering mothers to destroy such of their children whose feebleness or deformity in their youth seemed to promise

incapability of action in maturer years, and to become a burden to the state. His regulations about marriage must necessarily be censured, and no true conjugal felicity can be expected from the union of a man with a person whom he perhaps never knew before, and whom he was compelled to choose in a dark room, where all the marriageable women in the state assembled on stated occasions. Lycurgus has been compared to Solon, the celebrated legislator of Athens; and it has been judiciously observed, that the former gave his citizens morals conformable to the laws which he had established, and that the latter had given the Athenians laws which coincided with their customs and manners. The office of Lycurgus demanded resolution, and he showed himself inexorable and severe. In Solon artifice was requisite, and he showed himself mild and even voluptuous. The moderation of Lycurgus is greatly commended, particularly when we recollect that he treated with the greatest humanity and confidence Alcander, a youth who had put out one of his eyes in a seditious tumult. Lycurgus had a son called Antiorus, who left no issue. The Lacedæmonians showed their respect for his memory by yearly celebrating a festival in his honor, called *Lycurgidæ* or *Lycurgides*. The introduction of money into Sparta, in the reign of Agis, the son of Archidamus, was one of the principal causes which corrupted the innocence of the Lacedæmonians, and rendered them the prey of intrigue and of faction. The laws of Lycurgus were abrogated by Philopœmen, B. C. 188, but only for a little time, as they were soon after re-established by the Romans.

SOLON.

SOLON, one of the seven wise men of Greece, was born B. C. 638, at Salamis, and educated at Athens. His father's name was Euphorion, or Execestides, one of the descendants of King Codrus, and by his mother's side he reckoned among his relations the celebrated Pisistratus. After he had devoted part of his time to philosophical and political studies, Solon travelled over the greatest part of Greece; but at his return home he was distressed with the dissensions which were kindled among his countrymen. All fixed their eyes upon Solon as a deliverer, and he was unanimously elected archon and sovereign legislator. He might have become absolute, but he refused the dangerous office of king of Athens, and in the capacity of lawgiver he began to make a reform in every department. The complaints of the poor citizens found redress, all debts were remitted, and no one was permitted to seize the person of his debtor if unable to make a restoration of his money. After he had made the most salutary regulations in the state, and bound the Athenians by a solemn oath that they would faithfully observe his laws for the space of 100 years, Solon resigned his office of legislator, and removed himself from Athens. He visited Egypt, and at the court of Cræsus,* king of Lydia, he reasoned with

* This monarch, the fifth and last king of Lydia, succeeded his father Alyattes, B. C. 562, and was so fortunate in all his enterprises, that he soon became one of the richest men of that time. Subsequently, the wealthy and powerful monarch was overpowered and made a prisoner by Cyrus, king of Persia. According to the barbarous practice of the time, the unhappy captive was bound to the stake, and about to be burnt to death. In this miserable condition he recalled the impressive words of Solon, in the interview above alluded to and thrice he repeated the philosopher's name. Cyrus, struck with the earnestness of his tone, demanded an explanation. Cræsus gave it; and Cyrus, probably impressed with a more than usual feeling of the mutability of all human greatness, not only spared his life, but also took him into his favor and protection. At the death of Cyrus, he recommended Cræsus to the favor of Cambyses. That prince treated him with great insolence and cruelty, and finally ordered him to be put to death; but, through the mercy of the officers to whom the command was directed, it was not put into execution, and they were themselves put to death for their disobedience. On the time and place of the death of Cræsus history is silent.

that monarch on the instability of fortune, and, when Cræsus wished to know whether he was not the happiest of mortals, told him that Tellus, an Athenian, who had always seen his country in a flourishing state, who had seen his children lead a virtuous life, and who had himself fallen in defence of his country, was more entitled to happiness than the possessor of riches and the master of empires. After ten years' absence Solon returned to Athens, but he had the mortification to find the greatest part of his regulations disregarded by the factious spirit of his countrymen and the usurpation of Pisistratus. Not to be longer a spectator of the divisions that reigned in his country, he retired to Cyprus, where he died at the court of King Philocyprus, in the 80th year of his age, B. C. 558. The salutary consequences of the laws of Solon can be discovered in the length of time they were in force in the republic of Athens. For above four hundred years they flourished in full vigor, and Cicero, who was himself a witness of their benign influence, passes the highest encomiums upon the legislator, whose superior wisdom framed such a code of regulations. It was the intention of Solon to protect the poorest citizens, and by dividing the whole body of the Athenians into four classes, three of which were permitted to discharge the most important offices and magistracies of the state, and at last to give their opinion in the assemblies, but not have a share in the distinctions and honors of their superiors, the legislator gave the populace a privilege which, though at first small and inconsiderable, soon rendered them masters of the republic and of all the affairs of government. He made a reformation in the Areopagus, he increased the authority of the members, and permitted them yearly to inquire how every citizen maintained himself, and to punish such as lived in idleness, and were not employed in some honorable and lucrative profession. He also regulated the Prytaneum, and fixed the number of its judges at four hundred. The sanguinary laws of Draco* were all cancelled, except that against murder; and the punishment denounced against every offender was proportioned to his crime. But Solon made no law against parricide or sacrilege. The former of these crimes, he said, was too horrible to human nature for a man to be guilty of it, and the latter could never be committed, because the history of Athens had never furnished a single instance. Such as had died in the service of their country were buried with pomp, and their families were maintained at the public expense; but such as had squandered away their estates, such as refused to bear arms in defence of their country, or paid no attention to the infirmities and distress of their parents, were branded with infamy. The laws of marriage were newly regulated. To speak with ill language against the dead as well as the living, was made a crime, and the legislator wished that the character of his fellow-citizens should be freed from the aspersions of malevolence and envy. A person who had no children was permitted to dispose of his estates as he pleased, and the females were not allowed to be extravagant in their dress or expenses. To be guilty of adultery was a capital crime. These celebrated laws were engraved on several tables; and that they might be better known and more familiar to the Athenians, they were written in verse. The indignation which Solon expressed on seeing the tragical representations of Thespis is well known; and he sternly observed, that if falsehood and fiction were tolerated on the stage, they would soon find their way among the common occupations of men. According to Plutarch, Solon was reconciled to Pisistratus, but this seems to be false, as the legislator refused to live in a country where the privileges of his fellow-citizens were trampled upon by the usurpation of a tyrant.

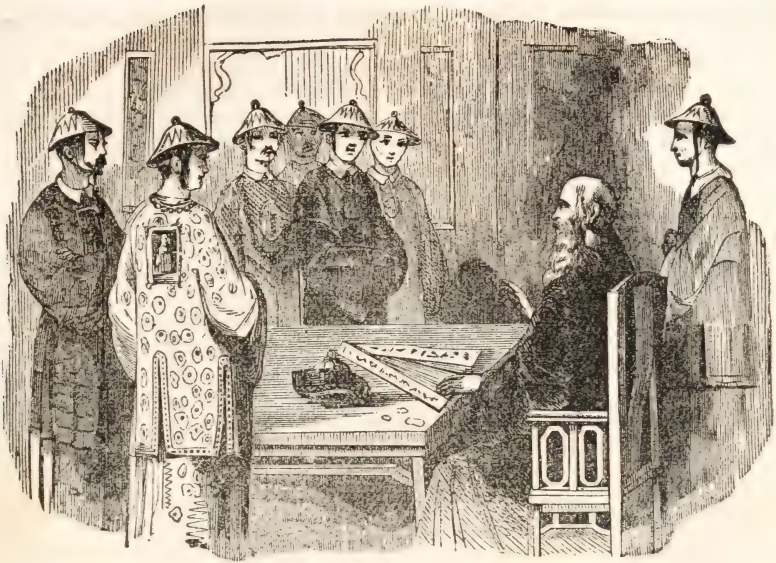
* The extraordinary and indiscriminate severity of the laws of Draco has rendered his name odious to humanity. During the period of the archonship of this Athenian legislator, B. C. 623, he enacted a criminal code, in which the slightest offences were punished with death. Hence it was said to be "written in blood." According to tradition, its sanguinary author was smothered by the populace of Ægina, on his appearance at the theatre there.



CONFUCIUS.

CONFUCIUS, the celebrated Chinese philosopher, was born 549 B. C., in the kingdom of Loo, one of the small sovereignties in the north of China. He was the son of the chief minister at the court of the king of Loo, and was himself of royal descent. Being of a studious disposition, he had no taste for the sports of youth, but devoted even the hours of recreation to reading the ancient books, and storing his mind with the wise maxims contained therein. He married when only nineteen, and had one son; but soon finding that a matrimonial life opposed many obstacles to the pursuit of his studies, he divorced his wife, and turned his whole mind toward framing a perfect system of government, founded on the works of the ancient sages. The talents and virtues of this great man caused him to be appointed one of the chief magistrates of his native country, the kingdom of Loo, in which capacity he had opportunities for observing that the people were in the habit of breaking the laws with impunity, of acting dishonestly toward each other, and were altogether guilty of so many vices, that a complete reformation was necessary throughout the country.

This important change he was desirous of promoting, by both instruction and example, with which view he made a progress through the different states, giving public lectures on the benefit of virtue and social order, which produced such good effects, that in a short time he was at the head of about three thousand disciples, who were converts to his doctrines, and practised the rules he laid down for their conduct. His fame increased with his years, and at length the king of Loo appointed him chief minister, and for a long time he was engaged in affairs of government. It is said that while he continued in power, justice was so well administered, that if gold or jewels were dropped on the highway, they would remain untouched until the rightful owner appeared to claim them. But this may be considered as merely a figurative mode of depicting the extreme good order that was preserved in the state. At length the philosopher, finding that all his efforts to produce a reformation at the court were unsuccessful, voluntarily resigned his dignity, and devoted himself, with a few chosen friends, entirely to the study of philosophy, and the composition of those works which have rendered his name immortal, and the precepts of which, like those of the Koran of Mohammed, even to this day, regulate both



Confucius and his Disciples.

the government and the religion of the state. The latter may be more properly termed a system of morality than a religion, as it is intended to inculcate the duties of men toward each other, rather than those which they owe to a superior being. The Confucians believe in one supreme Deity, and adore the earth as the mother of all things, but they have no particular form of worship, nor any regular priesthood; their religious rites consisting solely of sacrifices made in the temples on stated occasions, when the emperor officiates as high priest, and the chief mandarins of the court as his subordinates. The books of Confucius, which are studied by the Chinese as sacred volumes, teach that the true principles of virtue and social order are, obedience to parents, elders, and rulers; and the acting toward others as they would wish that others should act toward them. In the works of this great moralist, the duties of the sovereign are as strictly laid down as those of his subjects; and while they are enjoined to obey him as a father, he is exhorted to take care of them as though they were his children. There was nothing new in this patriarchal system of government, which had existed from the very beginning of the monarchy; but it was brought into a more perfect form, and the mutual obligations of princes and people were more clearly defined, than they had ever been before. But it was not only on the government of the empire collectively that this celebrated teacher bestowed his attention; he also made laws for private families, founded on the same principle of obedience from the younger to the elder, and submission from the inferior to the superior. Indeed, all classes of persons were instructed in the duties of their several stations by this highly-gifted individual, who employed all the energies of his mighty mind for the benefit of mankind.

The writings of Confucius are chiefly on the subject of moral philosophy, but there are among them two books which may be considered historical the one relating to his own, and the other to more ancient times. From the former is gathered all that is known of the state of the country at that period; but the latter is regarded more as traditional than as historical, as it is supposed to be merely a collection and arrangement of the records kept at the courts of the early monarchs by their historians. This work is entitled the Shoo-King, and

there is another called the *Shi-King*, containing all the ancient poems and songs of the country, which, it is recorded, used to be sung or recited before the emperors. These traditional poems and songs were collected and revised by Confucius, who formed them into a volume, which is still one of the standard works of the Chinese, and must be studied by all who aspire to preferment, as it forms the subject of a part of their examination, ere they can be admitted as candidates for any high office. The same great man formed into a code of laws all the ancient observances, in both public and private life, being of opinion that the preservation of order in a state depended much upon the outward forms of society in general. This code, which is called the "*Book of Rites*," entirely regulates and governs the manners and customs of the whole community, from the emperor to the most obscure of his subjects; and as it has maintained its influence from that time to the present, we may readily account for the little change which has taken place in the habits of the people. The study of this book constitutes an important branch of the education of every Chinese, and is, in fact, a part of his religion. Confucius died in the year 476 B. C. at the age of seventy-three, having spent the whole of his long life in the practice and teaching of virtue. Over two thousand and three hundred years have elapsed since his death, yet his name continues to be held in as much veneration as ever throughout the Chinese empire; and, although he did not pretend to divine inspiration like Mohammed, or profess to be endowed with more than human attributes, he is worshipped as a superior being, and many temples are dedicated to him in all the provinces of China. His descendants, who are very numerous, are the only persons who enjoy the dignity of mandarins by inheritance, and have many privileges on account of their great ancestor.

ÆSOP.

Æsop, the unrivalled fabulist, was born in Phrygia, about 600 B. C., under the reign of Cræsus, the last king of Lydia. St. Jerome, speaking of him, says, he was unfortunate in his birth, condition; and death, hinting thereby at his deformity, servile state, and tragical end. His great genius, however, enabled him to support his misfortunes; and, in order to alleviate the hardships of servitude, he composed those entertaining and instructive fables which have acquired him so much reputation; and he is generally supposed to have been the inventor of that kind of writing. Having had several masters, for he was born a slave, Æsop at length came under a philosopher named Xanthus, and it was in his service that he first displayed his genius for fable. He was afterward sold to Idmon, or Iadmon, the philosopher, who enfranchised him. After he had recovered his liberty, he soon acquired a great reputation among the Greeks; so that, according to Meziriac, the report of his wisdom having reached Cræsus, this king sent to inquire after him, and engaged him in his service. He travelled through Greece, according to the same author; but whether for his own pleasure, or upon the affairs of Cræsus, is uncertain. Passing by Athens soon after Pisi-tratus had usurped the sovereign power, and finding that the Athenians bore the yoke very impatiently, he told them the fable of the frogs who petitioned Jupiter for a king. Some relate, that in order to show that the life of man is full of miseries, Æsop used to say, that when Prometheus took the clay to form man he tempered it with tears. Æsop was put to death at Delphi, about 560 B. C. The inhabitants of Delphi contrived an accusation of sacrilege against him, and, pretending that they had convicted him, threw him headlong from a rock. They afterward endeavored to make an atonement by raising a pyramid to his honor.

PERICLES.

THERE are few passages of history, whether ancient or modern, so remarkable as the sudden rise of Athens, after the Persian invasion, out of a most imminent danger, to a most unexpected and extraordinary height of power. Her resources, after the defeat and flight of the Persians, consisted of a ruined city, a wasted territory, not as large as Massachusetts, and a victorious fleet: in less than fifty years, she was mistress, in the figurative language of the poets, of a thousand cities, possessed of an enormous revenue, the terror of Persia, the moving power of Greece, pre-eminent in the arts of peace and war, in literature and science, and all that adorns life, the admiration and resort of strangers for the unequalled beauty of her public buildings and works of art, whose very fragments are the choicest treasures of modern museums. This remarkable but short-lived splendor she owed to the spirit, enterprise, and ability of her citizens, qualities which, as a body, they possessed in a greater degree perhaps than any other people, headed by a succession of leaders of extraordinary powers. The last of these was Pericles, under whose guidance Athens reached the pitch of her prosperity, to fall again, by rapid though interrupted descents, from her sovereign condition, into misfortune, insignificance, and finally that hopeless and contented slavery which for 2000 years was her lot.

The birth of Pericles appears to have taken place a little later than the year 500 before Christ. He was descended of the noblest blood of Athens, but was inferior in wealth to many among his contemporaries. At an early age he showed signs of great abilities. His education was conducted by the ablest teachers of the usual accomplishments; and, in addition, he exercised and sharpened his mental powers by diligent and eager study of the deepest speculations of the Greek philosophers. His infancy and boyhood witnessed the stirring events of the Persian war, and the rapid growth of Athens in wealth and dominion. Such events, with the brilliant career laid open to his distinguished countrymen and predecessors, Themistocles and others, were highly calculated to fan and nourish the ambition of a powerful mind; and even in youth he seems to have formed his character and carriage upon the model becoming a statesman. He early attracted notice, not only by his sweetness of voice, fluency of language, and dignified beauty of person, which reminded the aged of the usurper Pisistratus, but also by the gravity of his demeanor and decorum of his conduct. "From his first entrance into public life, he devoted himself with unremitting application to business; he was never to be seen out of doors but on the way between his house and the seat of council; he declined all invitations to the entertainments of his acquaintance, and confined himself to the society of a very select circle of intimate friends. He bestowed the most assiduous attention on the preparation of his speeches; and so little disguised it, that he used to say he never mounted the platform without praying that no inappropriate word might drop from his lips. The impression thus produced was heightened by the calm majesty of his air and carriage, and by the philosophical composure which he maintained under all provocations. And he was so careful to avoid the effect which familiarity might have on the people, that he was sparing even in his attendance at the assembly, and, reserving his own appearance for great occasions, carried many of his measures through the agency of his friends and partisans."

When Pericles took a share in the administration of public affairs, he rendered himself popular by opposing Cimon, who was the favorite of the nobility; and, to remove every obstacle which stood in the way of his ambition, he lessened the dignity and the power of the court of the Areopagus, which the



Bust of Pericles—from the original in the British Museum.

people had been taught for ages to respect and to venerate. He also attacked Cimon, and caused him to be banished by the ostracism. Thucydides also, who had succeeded Cimon on his banishment, shared the same fate, and Pericles remained for fifteen years the sole minister, and, as it may be said, the absolute sovereign of a republic which always showed itself so jealous of its liberties, and which distrusted so much the honesty of her magistrates. In his ministerial capacity, Pericles did not enrich himself, but the prosperity of Athens was the object of his administration. He made war against the Lacedæmonians, and restored the temple of Delphi to the care of the Phocians, who had been illegally deprived of that honorable trust. He obtained a victory over the Sicyonians near Nemæa, and waged a successful war against the inhabitants of Samos at the request, it is said, of his favorite mistress, Aspasia. This celebrated woman, whose connection with Pericles was a favorite subject of allusion and ridicule with the scandal-mongers and the satirists of those times, was a native of Miletus, of extraordinary beauty and talent, educated far above the usual level of the sex in Greece, with the view of making a profitable market of her accomplishments. Her condition in this respect is not to be judged according to the refinement of modern manners, still less by the pure rules of Christian morality. The fascination of her person, manners, and conversation, won for her the enduring love of Pericles, who in her behalf divorced his wife, and placed her at the head of his household. She was his constant companion, the partner of his counsels, and his adviser : she engaged in equal terms in the most abstruse discussions of the philosophers whom Pericles loved to assemble at his house ; and her reputation for eloquence was such that, in one of the dialogues of Plato, Socrates represents himself as her pupil, with the intimation that she "had made many good orators, and Pericles among the number." Indeed her influence over the great statesman afforded matter for continual attacks to the comic poets, such as calling them the Jupiter and Juno, the Hercules and Omphale of Athens. It also gave ground occasionally to more serious charges ; for men boldly asserted, that to gratify her personal animosities, he had engaged his country in the wars against Samos as before remarked, and Megara. And though the influence of Pericles was too deeply rooted for his enemies to venture on a direct attack, it is clear that they were numerous and powerful, from the success with which they aimed an indirect blow at both his happiness and his reputation, by assailing some of his most intimate friends. The freedom of discussion and speculative turn of conversation encouraged at his house, where many of the speakers treated the received religion of Greece with very light respect, furnished ground for a criminal prosecution against his former preceptor and most intimate friend, Anaxagoras, the issue of which is not altogether clear : it appears however that the philosopher found it either necessary or expedient to retire from Athens for the remainder of his life. Aspasia was involved in the same charge of impiety, coupled with a grosser and more degrading accusation ; and owed her deliverance to the great personal exertions of Pericles, who condescended on this occasion to use even tears and personal entreaties to work upon the judges in her behalf. These prosecutions took place just before the outbreak of the Peloponnesian war : the storm, however, soon blew over, and his power and reputation stood as high as ever during the remainder of his life, with one short exception.

Another vexation which befell him at a somewhat earlier date was the persecution of his friend, the sculptor Phidias, to whom, more than to any man, Athens was indebted for her new-born splendor. He was first accused of having embezzled part of the gold which had been furnished from the treasury to ornament the statue of Minerva, to the weight of forty talents. This, however, at the suggestion of Pericles, who foresaw that the treasure thus consecra-

ted might be required in some future need of the state, had been so arranged that the whole could readily be taken off without injury to the statue : and the charge was refuted by simply offering to submit it to the test of experiment. Another accusation was then brought forward, that the sculptor had introduced his own portrait and his patron's in the bas-reliefs which ornamented the shield of the goddess. On this plea, which involved a notion of sacrilege, Phidias was committed to prison, where he died. In the charge of peculation, Pericles, though not included in the accusation, was clearly involved : but the historian Thucydides, a contemporary of the highest veracity, and no friend to Pericles, has testified to his integrity in the strongest terms. Yet there was a very general belief in later times that his application of the public money would not bear inquiry, and that it was in part the desire to occupy the minds of the Athenians with other matters which induced him to lead his country into that great contest between the aristocratic and democratic interests, commonly called the Peloponnesian war. There is a well-known story that his ward Alcibiades one day inquired the reason of his apparent perplexity ; and being told that he was studying how to render his accounts, replied, that he should rather study not to render them at all. But there were causes enough for the war, without attributing it to this discreditable one ; and in truth the wonder is rather that peace should have lasted so long, than that the inveterate jealousy of parties should have broken into war at last. Pericles seems to have been of opinion that it could not long be averted : and in that case it was not for the advantage of Athens to purchase delay by fruitless concessions. He was also confident of the success of Athens in the struggle about to commence : and had he lived to bring it to an end, or had statesmen equal in prudence and talent succeeded to his power, his anticipations would, to all appearance, have been realized. The extent of his influence is most remarkably shown by one measure which he persuaded the Athenians to adopt. This was no less than a transfer of the whole population of Attica with all their moveables to the space included within the walls of the city and its ports, abandoning the country, without resistance, to the invasion of the enemy. His grounds for this were, the inexpediency of risking the limited body of Athenian citizens in pitched battles against the Peloponnesian armies, which were superior in both number and reputation, and even if defeated, might be recruited to any amount ; and on the other hand, the superiority of the Athenians at sea, which enabled them to draw inexhaustible supplies of all things needful from their subjects and trading connections, and the strength of their city, which defied such methods of assault as military skill had yet invented. These advantages, and their abundant revenue, would enable them at pleasure to protract the war ; while the funds of the Peloponnesians, who derived little profit from trade and colonies, were not likely to last through an expensive struggle. And he warned them not to seek conquests, but to content themselves with defending what they already enjoyed.

The events proved the justice of his views in all respects. The first invasion of Attica took place B. C. 431. Though the people had reluctantly assented to his policy, and removed into the city, yet the spectacle of their country ravaged by an insulting enemy tried their patience severely, and they demanded with loud and bitter reproaches to be led into the action. Pericles remained unmoved, and would neither lead an army to the field nor summon an assembly to deliberate on the subject. Trees, he said, when cut down might shoot up again, but men were not so easily replaced. But he provided a vent for the active spirit of the people, by sending various expeditions to ravage the sea-coast of the enemy's country. At the close of the campaign the usual tribute of funeral honors to those who had fallen in battle was celebrated ; a circumstance here mentioned because Pericles pronounced the funeral oration on this occasion, and in the want of any genuine specimen of his eloquence the speech

attributed to him by Thucydides, book ii., becomes doubly interesting as being very possibly a pretty faithful report as to the topics which Pericles employed on the occasion, and an imitation of his style. ●

The second year of the war was more calamitous. In the course of it the celebrated plague of Athens broke out. The general misery produced by this fearful visitation emboldened the enemies of Pericles to institute a prosecution, in consequence of which he was deprived of his military command, and heavily fined. In the following year he recovered both his office and his ascendancy over the people. But in the summer B. C. 429, he was himself carried off by a lingering illness, having already lost by the pestilence his two legitimate sons, his sister, and the most valued of his friends. The death of his younger son, a very promising youth, appears to have cut him to the heart. He placed the funeral garland on the head of the corpse, according to custom, but in doing so—a most unusual mark of emotion—he burst into tears. When he was near his end, and apparently insensible, his friends, gathered round his bed, and relieved their sorrow by recalling the remembrance of his military exploits and of the trophies which he had raised. He interrupted them, and observed that they had omitted the most glorious praise which he could claim. “Other generals,” said he, “have been as fortunate, but I have never caused an Athenian to put on mourning:” a singular ground of satisfaction, notwithstanding the caution (herein alluded to) of his military career, if he had been conscious of having involved his country in the bloodiest war it had ever waged. His death was a loss which Athens could not repair. Many were eager to step into his place; but there was no man able to fill it; and the fragments of his power were snatched by unworthy hands. He died when the caution on which he valued himself was more than ever needed to guard Athens from fatal errors; and when the humanity which breathes through his dying boast might have saved her from her deepest disgrace.

SOPHOCLES.

SOPHOCLES was born at the village of Colonos, B. C. 495, thirty years after the birth of Æschylus. Being the son of wealthy and well-born parents, he received a careful education in the usual accomplishments of the time, among which, bodily exercises, and the elegant arts, music, drawing, poetry, &c., bore a much more prominent part than is customary in modern education; and his proficiency in these acquirements were uncommon. His first appearance as a dramatist was on no less an occasion than the removal, by Cimon, of the bones of Theseus from Scyros to Athens, B. C. 468. At this solemnity (whether it coincided with the usual performances, or an extraordinary celebration was held) a memorable dramatic contest (says Plutarch) took place, at which Sophocles first became a candidate for the tragic prize, and won it against the majestic Æschylus, the father of his art. Such was the interest and party spirit excited, that instead of balloting for arbitrators, as was usual, the archon ordered the ten generals of the state, with Cimon at their head, to adjudge the prize. One report goes, that Æschylus retired to Sicily from anger at his defeat; but this is doubtful. From this period until his death, during more than sixty years, Sophocles continued to compose and exhibit. Nevertheless his life was not entirely devoted to art. He held his offices, civil and military, though, from the scanty notices which remain, it does not seem that his talents for business were of first-rate order. His long life was spent, more than often falls to the lot of man, in tranquil enjoyment, to which his happy and easy tem-



Sophocles.

perament greatly contributed. "It would seem," says Schlegel, "as if a gracious Providence had proposed to reveal to the human race, in the example of this one man, the dignity and blessedness of its lot, by conferring on him, in addition to all that can adorn and elevate the heart and mind, all conceivable blessings of life. To have been born of wealthy and respected parentage, as a free citizen of the most polished community in Greece, was but the first preliminary to his felicity. Beauty of person and of mind, and the uninterrupted enjoyment of both, in perfect soundness, to the very extreme term of human life; a most select and complete education in the gymnastic and musical arts, the one of which was so mighty to impart energy, the other harmony, to exquisite natural capacities: the sweet bloom of youth, and the mature fruit of age; the possession and uninterrupted enjoyment of poetry and art, and the exercise of serene wisdom; love and esteem among his fellow-citizens, renown abroad, and the favor of the well-pleased gods: these are the most general features of the life of this pious and holy poet. . . . When a youth of sixteen years old, he was chosen, on account of his beauty, to dance the prelude, according to the Grecian custom, playing at the same time on the lyre, to the Pæan which was performed by the chorus of youths around the trophy erected after the battle of Salamis—that battle in which Æschylus had fought, and which he has depicted in such glorious colors. Thus, then, the most beautiful disclosure of his youthful bloom coincided with the most glorious epoch of the Athenian people. He held the office of general in conjunction with Pericles and Thucydides, at a time when he was drawing near to old age; moreover he was priest to a native hero. In his twenty-fifth year he began to exhibit tragedies; twenty times he gained the victory; frequently the second place; the third never; in this employment he went on with increasing success till past his ninetieth year; nay, perhaps some of his greatest works belong to this period of his life. A legend tells how, in consequence of more tenderly loving a younger son by another wife, he was charged by an elder son or sons with dotage and incapacity to manage his property; that instead of a defence, he recited to his judges his 'Œdipus at Colonus,' which he had just composed, or, according to others, the magnificent chorus in that play which sings the praises of Colonus, the place of his birth; whereupon the judges, without more ado, broke up the court in admiration, and the poet was conducted in triumph to his house. . . . Although the varying legends about the manner of his death seem fabulous, yet in this they agree, and have this true purport, that while he was employed about his art, or something connected with it, he expired without the touch of disease; that therefore, like some hoar old swan of Apollo, he breathed out his life in song. So also the story of the Lacedæmonian general, who when he had intrenched the burial-ground of the poet's ancestors, was twice warned by Bacchus in a vision to allow Sophocles to be there interred, I regard as true in the same sense; as I do all else that serves to display the veneration paid to this glorified man. Pious and holy I called him in his own sense of the words. But though his words breathe altogether the antique grandeur, sweetness, gracefulness, and simplicity, he is, of all the Grecian poets, the one whose feelings have most in common with the spirit of our religion."

The accounts of the poet's death are various: some say that he was choked by a grape, others that he died of over-exertion in reading his 'Antigone;' others, that excessive joy at a new victory proved fatal to him. He lived however to the extreme age of ninety, dying only a few months before the battle of Ægos-potami completed the ruin of Athens. The Spartan general above alluded to is Lysander, and Deceleia the poet's place of family burial.

It is in Sophocles' hands that the Greek tragedy, regarded as an art, is usually thought to have reached its highest perfection. Of his numerous plays,

only seven have reached modern times. Fortunately, these are among the pieces most prized by the ancients, and are amply meritorious to establish his fame.

The following epitaph, by Simmias of Thebes, is well known, having been very beautifully set to music :—

“ Wind, gentle evergreen, to form a shade
Around the tomb where Sophocles is laid :
Sweet ivy, lend thine aid, and intertwine
With blushing roses and the clustering vine :
So shall thy lasting leaves, with beauties hung,
Prove grateful emblems of the lays he sung !”

SOCRATES.

SOCRATES, the most eminent of the Grecian philosophers, and the one who is handed down to us as a model of wisdom and virtue, was born in Attica, B. C. 470. His father was a statuary, in which employment Socrates was brought up; but the cultivation of his mind was the object nearest his heart, and to that his attention was unremittingly devoted. He attended the lectures of the most celebrated philosophers of his time; and studied the principles of eloquence, poetry, music, and the mathematical sciences. But the moral improvement of his fellow-men was the end and aim of all his studies and all his exertions. His method of teaching was by proposing to his hearers a series of questions in such a manner as to produce in their minds a conviction of the truth of the proposition originally advanced; a mode of argument ever since termed Socratic. He maintained the existence of one Supreme Intelligence, whose providence is over all his works; and he was equally clear in the existence of a future state. His system of morals corresponded with these principles; and his invariable maxim was, that virtue and wisdom are inseparable. Socrates, however, while he taught these truths, and exhibited in his own conduct all the temperance, forbearance, and self-command, which principally constitute elevation of character, could not altogether divest himself of the superstitious notions of his times. He affirmed that an invisible genius constantly attended upon his own person, warning him of danger, and directing him in the course of life he should pursue. As a citizen he discharged, with exemplary faithfulness, all his public duties. Three times he served in the army of his country, excelling his fellow-soldiers in the ease with which he endured the hardships of their campaigns. The last part of his life occurred during that unhappy period when Athens had sunk into anarchy and despotism, in consequence of the unfortunate result of the Peloponnesian war. Amid the general immorality, hatred, envy, and malice of such an epoch, Socrates was charged, by the infamous Melitus and Anytus, with introducing new gods, of denying the ancient divinities of the state, and of corrupting youth, &c. He defended himself with the calm confidence of innocence; but was condemned by a majority of three voices, and sentenced to drink poison. Xenophon describes the scene with much affecting simplicity. When the cup of hemlock was presented to him, he received it with a steady hand; and after a prayer to the gods for a favorable passage to the invisible world, he serenely swallowed the fatal draught. Thus perished, in his seventieth year (B. C. 400), a man whom all heathen antiquity has pronounced the wisest and most virtuous of mortals. Party enmity for a while pursued his memory; but at length the Athenians became sensible of their injustice, put to death or banished his accusers, recalled his friends, and erected a statue to his memory.

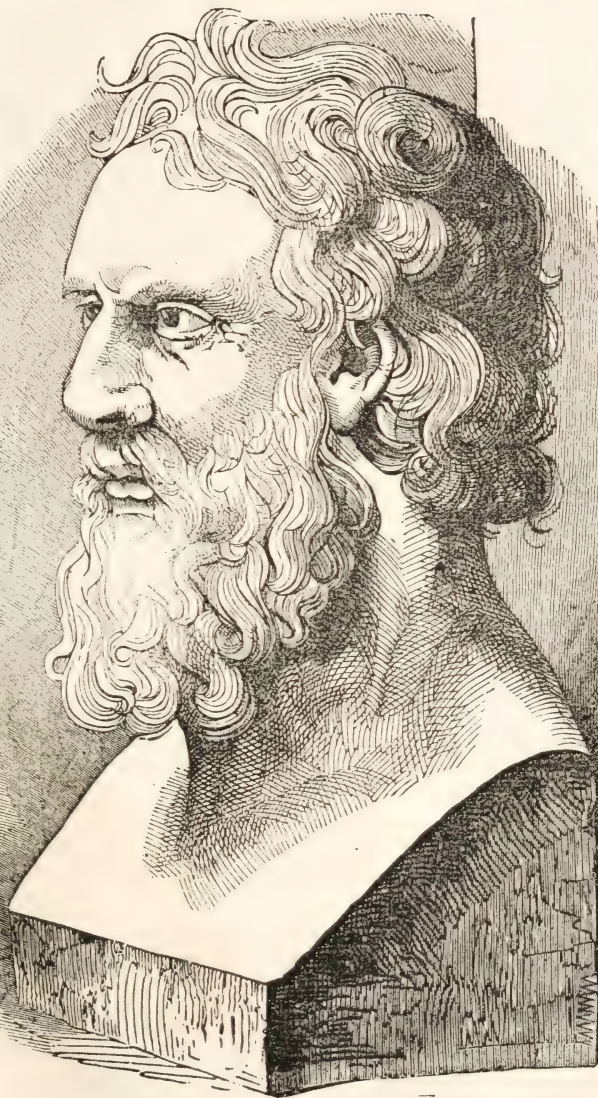
XENOPHON.

XENOPHON, an illustrious Athenian philosopher, soldier, and historian, was born B. C. 450. In the school of Socrates, he received those instructions and precepts which afterward so eminently distinguished him at the head of an army, in literary solitude, and as the father of a family. He was invited by Proxenus, one of his intimate friends, to accompany Cyrus the younger in an expedition against his brother Artaxerxes, king of Persia; but he refused to comply without previously consulting his venerable master, and inquiring into the propriety of such a measure. Socrates strongly opposed it, and observed that it might raise the resentment of his countrymen, as Sparta had made an alliance with the Persian monarch; but, however, before he proceeded further, he recommended him to consult the oracle of Apollo. Xenophon paid due deference to the injunctions of Socrates, but as he was ambitious of glory, and eager to engage in a distant expedition, he hastened with precipitation to Sardis, where he was introduced to the young prince, and treated with great attention. In the army of Cyrus, Xenophon showed that he was a true disciple of Socrates, and that he had been educated in the warlike city of Athens. After the decisive battle in the plains of Cunaxa, and the fall of young Cyrus, the prudence and vigor of his mind were called into action. The ten thousand Greeks who had followed the standard of an ambitious prince, were now at the distance of above six hundred leagues from their native home, in a country surrounded on every side by a victorious enemy, without money, without provisions, and without a leader. Xenophon was selected from among the officers to superintend the retreat of his countrymen, and though he was often opposed by malevolence and envy, yet his persuasive eloquence and his activity convinced the Greeks, that no general could extricate them from every difficulty better than the disciple of Socrates. This celebrated retreat was at last happily effected; the Greeks returned home after a march of 1155 parasangs, or leagues, which was performed in 215 days, after an absence of fifteen months. The whole perhaps might now be forgotten, or at least but obscurely known, if the great philosopher who planned it, had not employed his pen in describing the dangers which he escaped, and the difficulties which he surmounted. He was no sooner returned from Cunaxa, than he sought new honors in following the fortune of Agesilaus in Asia. He enjoyed his confidence, he fought under his standard, and conquered with him in the Asiatic provinces, as well as at the battle of Coronæa. His fame, however, did not escape the aspersions of jealousy; he was publicly banished from Athens for accompanying Cyrus against his brother, and being now without a home, he retired to Scillus, a small town of the Lacedæmonians, in the neighborhood of Olympia. In this solitary retreat he dedicated his time to literary pursuits, and having acquired riches in his Asiatic expeditions, he began to adorn and variegate by the hand of art, for his pleasure and enjoyment, the country which surrounded Scillus. He built a magnificent temple to Diana, in imitation of that of Ephesus, and spent part of his time in rural employments, or in hunting in the woods and mountains. His peaceful occupations, however, were soon disturbed; a war arose between the Lacedæmonians and Elis; the sanctity of Diana's temple, and the venerable age of the philosopher, who lived in the delightful retreats of Scillus, were disregarded; and Xenophon, driven by the Ælians from his favorite spot, where he had composed and written for the information of posterity and honor of his country, retired to the city of Corinth. In this place he died, in the ninetieth year of his age, 359 years before the Christian era.

The works of Xenophon are numerous. His style has always been admired for sweetness, Attic purity, and singular clearness.

P L A T O .

PLATO, the pupil and biographer of Socrates, the earliest Greek philosopher whose writings are devoted to the advancement of moral and metaphysical science, was the son of Athenian parents, but born in the island of Ægina, B. C. 429. His descent was illustrious, being derived on the mother's side from the philosopher and lawgiver Solon, and on the father's from the ancient kings of Athens. His original name was Aristocles, and he received that of Plato from the largeness of his shoulders. He was educated with care, his body was formed and invigorated with gymnastic exercises, and his mind was cultivated and enlightened by the study of poetry and of geometry, from which he derived that acuteness of judgment and warmth of imagination, which have stamped his character as the most subtle and flowery writer of antiquity. He first began his literary career by writing poems and tragedies; but he was soon disgusted with his own productions, when, at the age of twenty, he was introduced into the presence of Socrates, and when he was enabled to compare and examine, with critical accuracy, the merits of his compositions with those of his poetical predecessors. During eight years he continued to be one of the pupils of Socrates; and after his death Plato retired from Athens, and began to travel over Greece. He visited Magara, Thebes, and Elis, where he met with the kindest reception from his fellow-disciples, whom the violent death of their master had likewise removed from Attica. He afterward visited Magna Græcia, attracted by the fame of the Pythagorean philosophy, and by the learning, abilities, and reputation, of its professors, Philolaus, Archytas, and Eurytus. He afterward passed into Sicily, and examined the eruptions and fires of the volcano of that island. He also visited Egypt, where then the mathematician Theodorus flourished, and where he knew that the tenets of the Pythagorean philosophy and metempsychosis had been fostered and cherished. When he had finished his travels, Plato retired to the groves of Academus, in the neighborhood of Athens, where his lectures were soon attended by a crowd of learned, noble, and illustrious pupils; and the philosopher, by refusing to have a share in the administration of affairs, rendered his name more famous and his school more frequented. During forty years he presided at the head of the academy, and there he devoted his time to the instruction of his pupils, and composed those dialogues which have been the admiration of every age and country. His studies, however, were interrupted for a time, while he obeyed the pressing calls and invitations of Dionysius, and while he persuaded the tyrant to become a man, the father of his people, and the friend of Liberty. In his dress the philosopher was not ostentatious, his manners were elegant, but modest, simple, without affectation; and the great honors which his learning deserved were not paid to his appearance. When he came to the Olympian games, Plato resided in a family who were totally strangers to him. He told them his name was Plato, yet he never spoke of the employment he pursued at Athens; and when he returned home, attended by the family which had so kindly entertained him, he was desired to show them the great philosopher whose name he bore: their surprise was great when he told them that he himself was the Plato whom they wished to behold. In his diet he was moderate, and indeed, to sobriety and temperance in the use of food, and to the want of those pleasures which enfeeble the body and enervate the mind, some have attributed his preservation during the tremendous pestilence which raged at Athens with so much fury at the beginning of the Peloponnesian war. Plato died on his birthday, in the eighty-first year of his age, B. C. 384. He expired according to Cicero, as he was writing. The works of Plato are numerous; they are all written in the form of a dialogue, except twelve letters.



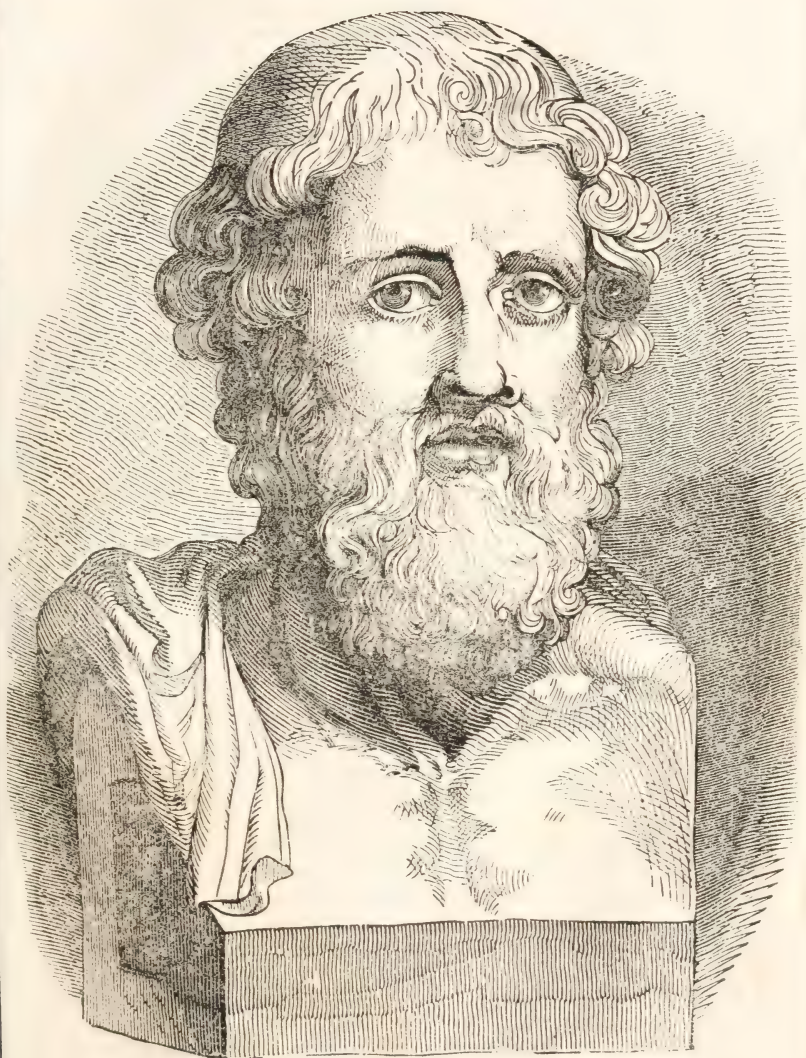
Plato from an antique Bust.

DEMOSTHENES.

DEMOSTHENES, the greatest orator of antiquity, was the son of an opulent sword-blade manufacturer at Athens, and was born about 382 B. C. He was but seven years of age when his father died. His guardians negligently managed his affairs, and embezzled the greatest part of his possessions. His education was totally neglected; and for whatever advances he made in learning, he was indebted to his industry and application. He became the pupil of Isæus and Plato, and applied himself to study the orations of Isocrates. At the age of seventeen he gave an early proof of his eloquence and abilities against his guardians, from whom he obtained the retribution of the greatest part of his estate. His rising talents were, however, impeded, by weak lungs, and a difficulty of pronunciation, especially of the letter *r*; but these obstacles were soon conquered by unwearied application. His abilities as an orator raised him to consequence at Athens, and he was soon placed at the head of the government. In this public capacity he roused his countrymen from their indolence, and animated them against the encroachments of Philip of Macedonia. In the battle of Cheronææ, however, Demosthenes betrayed his pusillanimity, and saved his life by flight. After the death of Philip, he declared himself warmly against his son and successor, Alexander, whom he branded with the appellation of boy; and when the Macedonians demanded of the Athenians their orators, Demosthenes promptly reminded his countrymen of the fable of the sheep which delivered their dogs to the wolves. Though he had boasted that all the gold of Macedonia could not tempt him, yet he suffered himself to be bribed by a small golden cup from Harpalus. The tumults which this occasioned forced him to retire from Athens; and in his banishment, which he passed at Træzene and Ægina, he lived with more effeminacy than true heroism. When Antipater made war against Greece, after the death of Alexander, Demosthenes was publicly recalled from his exile, and a galley was sent to fetch him from Ægina. His return was attended with much splendor and all the citizens crowded at the Piræus to see him land. His triumph and popularity, however, were short. Antipater and Craterus were near Athens, and demanded all the orators to be delivered up into their hands. Demosthenes, with all his adherents, fled to the temple of Neptune in Calauria; and when he saw that all hopes of safety were banished, he took a dose of poison, which he always carried in a quill, and expired on the day that the Thesmophoria were celebrated, in the sixtieth year of his age, B. C. 322. The Athenians raised a brazen statue to his honor with an inscription translated into this distich:—

“ Si tibi par menti robur, Vir magne, fuisset,
Græcia non Macedæ succubisset hero.”

Demosthenes has been deservedly called the prince of orators; and Cicero his successful rival among the Romans, calls him a perfect model, and such as he wished to be. These two great princes of eloquence have often been compared together; but the judgment hesitates to which to give the preference. They both arrived at perfection; but the measures by which they obtained it were diametrically opposite. Demosthenes has been compared, and with propriety, by his rival Æschines, to a siren, from the melody of his expression. No orator can be said to have expressed the various passions of hatred, resentment, or indignation, with more energy than he. As a proof of his uncommon application, he transcribed ten times the history of Thucydides, that he might not merely imitate, but possess, the force and energy of the great historian.



Demosthenes—from the drawing by Rubens after an antique Bust.

ARISTOTLE.

ARISTOTLE, the great founder of the peripatetic sect of philosophers, was born at Stagira, in Thrace, B. C. 384. After his father's death he went to Athens, to hear Plato's lectures, where he soon signalized himself by the brightness of his genius. He had been of an inactive and dissolute disposition in his youth, but now he applied himself with uncommon diligence, and, after he had spent twenty years in hearing the instructions of Plato, he opened a school for himself, for which he was accused of ingratitude and illiberality by his ancient master. He was moderate in his meals; he slept little, and always had one arm out of his couch with a bullet in it, which by falling into a brazen basin underneath, early awakened him. The fame of his abilities having reached Philip of Macedon, that prince made him tutor to his son, Alexander the Great; and he so carefully attended the young prince, that Philip rebuilt the town of Stagira, which he had razed, and restored the expelled inhabitants to their town and privileges. When Alexander set out on his expedition to Asia, Aristotle returned to Athens, and obtained leave to occupy the Lycæum as a school of philosophy, where he established a sect called, from his habit of walking as he lectured, the peripatetic. Envy of his abilities caused him to be accused of impiety, and he retired to Chalcis, remarking, in allusion to the judicial murder of Socrates, that he did not wish to see the Athenians a second time guilty of crime against philosophy. He remained at Chalcis till his death, which occurred B. C. 323, in the 63d year of his age. There are different reports about the manner of his death: some have said that he drowned himself in the Euripus, because he could not find out the cause of its flux and reflux, and some believe that he died at Athens of a colic, two years after Alexander's death. The people of Stagira instituted festivals in his honor, in consequence of the important services he had rendered to their city.

Almost all his writings, which are composed on a variety of subjects, are extant: he gave them to Theophrastus at his death, and they were brought by one of the Ptolemies, and placed in the famous library of Alexandria. Diogenes Laertes has given us a very extensive catalogue of them. Aristotle had a deformed countenance, but his genius was a sufficient compensation for all his personal defects. He has been called by Plato the philosopher of truth; and Cicero compliments him with the title of a man of eloquence, universal knowledge, readiness and acuteness of invention, and fecundity of thought. Aristotle studied nature more than art, and had recourse to simplicity of expression more than ornament. He was so authoritative in his opinions, that, as Bacon observes, he wished to establish the same dominion over men's minds as his pupil over nations. Alexander, it is said, wished and encouraged his learned tutor to write the history of animals; and the more effectually to assist him, he supplied him with eight hundred talents, and in his Asiatic expedition employed above a thousand men to collect animals, either in fishing, hunting, or hawking, which were carefully transmitted to the philosopher. Aristotle's logic has long reigned in the schools, and been regarded as the perfect model of all imitation. The letter which Philip wrote to Aristotle has been preserved, and is in these words: "I inform you I have a son; I thank the gods, not so much for making me a father, as for given me a son in an age when he can have Aristotle for his instructor. I hope you will make him a successor worthy of me, and a king worthy of Macedonia." Aristotle had a son, whom he called Nicomachus (the name his father bore), and for whose use and improvement he composed his ten books of morals, thence called *Nicomachea*.

His treatises have been published separately; but the best edition of the works collectively, is that of Duval, 2 vols. fol. Paris, 1629.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.



Portrait of Alexander.—Enlarged from a Coin in the Bodleian Library, Oxford, England.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT, whose heroism is so universally a theme, was the son of Philip, king of Macedon, by Olympias, daughter of Neoptolemus, king of Epirus, and born B. C. 356 ; the same year in which the temple of Diana at Ephesus was destroyed. Alexander received his education under Lysimachus and Aristotle, and gave several proofs of manly skill and courage while very young ; one of which, the breaking-in of his fiery steed, Bucephalus, is mentioned by all his historians as an incident which convinced his father of his future unconquerable spirit. Alexander was much attached to his mother, and sided with her in the disputes which led to her divorce from Philip. While the latter was making preparations for his grand expedition into Asia,

he was assassinated by Pausanias ; and Alexander succeeded to the throne in his twentieth year. His youth at first excited an inclination in several of the states of Greece to throw off the yoke of the Macedonian usurpation ; but the hero soon quelled the design, and was acknowledged general of Greece. He then marched into Thrace, and gained several conquests. During his absence Thebes revolted ; and when Alexander returned, he took that city by storm, made a dreadful carnage of the inhabitants, and destroyed all the buildings except the residence of Pindar the poet. This severe example had its effect on the other states ; and even Athens distinguished itself by a servile submission to the conqueror. Alexander next turned his arms against Darius, king of Persia ; and, at twenty-two, crossed the Hellespont, at the head of forty thousand men. With this force he defeated the Persians at the Granicus, and made himself master of numerous places. At Gordium, where he assembled his army, he is said to have cut the famous knot on which the fate of Asia depended. Shortly after this, he again defeated the king of Persia near Issus, and took immense treasures and many prisoners ; among whom were the mother, wife, and children of Darius. This victory was followed by the conquest of Phœnicia, Damascus, and several other states. Alexander next besieged Tyre, which long resisted him, and, in revenge, many of the inhabitants were put to the sword. He then went to Jerusalem, passed into Egypt, subdued it, and founded the city of Alexandria. Darius now collected another army, and was defeated at Arbela, which decided the fate of Western Asia. This great battle was followed by the capture of Susa and Persepolis ; the last of which Alexander destroyed at the instigation of his mistress. He now prepared for an expedition to India ; and, after a perilous march, reached the Indus, B. C. 327, which he crossed at the part where the city of Attock now stands. Alexander received the submission of several of the petty princes of the country, but was opposed by Porus, who valiantly withstood the invader ; and although conquered and made prisoner, the victor, pleased with his spirit, restored him his dominions, and made him an ally. The conqueror next entered the fertile plains now called the Punjab, took the city of Sangala, and directed his course to the Ganges ; from which object, however, he was diverted by the rainy season, and the disaffection of his own troops. He accordingly erected twelve altars of an extraordinary size to mark the limits of his progress, remnants of which are said to be still in existence. Alexander, therefore, retraced his steps to the Hydaspes, on the banks of which he built two cities, Nicæa and Bucephala ; and embarked, with his light troops, on board a fleet he had constructed leaving the main army to march by land. After a severe contest with the Mallii, in which he was wounded and his whole army nearly lost, he proceeded down the river to Patala ; and having entered the Indian ocean, and performed some rites in honor of Neptune, he left his fleet ; giving orders to Nearchus, who had the command, to sail to the Persian gulf, and thence up the Tigris to Mesopotamia. Alexander then prepared to march to Babylon, toward which capital he proceeded in triumphal progress. Reaching Susa, he began to give way to a passion for pleasure and joviality, and married Statira, the daughter of Darius. At length he reached Babylon, where he gave orders indicating future undertakings of great magnitude ; when he was seized with an illness, in consequence of indulging in habits of intemperance, and died of a fever, in the thirteenth year of his eventful reign, and the thirty-third of his life, B. C. 323. When required to name his successor, he is said to have replied, " The worthiest among you ; but I am afraid," added he, " that my best friends will perform my funeral obsequies with bloody hands." Alexander, with all his pride, was humane and liberal, easy and familiar with his friends. Pursuant to his own direction, his body was conveyed to Alexandria in a golden coffin, enclosed in a sumptuous sarcophagus, supposed to be now in the British Museum.

ARCHIMEDES.

ARCHIMEDES, the most celebrated mathematician among the ancients, was born B. C. 286. He was a native of Syracuse, and related to King Hiero. He was equally skilled in the sciences of astronomy, geometry, mechanics, hydrostatics, and optics; his aptness in solving problems had become proverbial in Cicero's days, and his singular ingenuity in the invention and construction of warlike engines, is much dwelt upon by Livy. The combination of pulleys for raising immense weights, the endless screw, &c., were invented by him. He also invented a machine of glass that faithfully represented the motions of all the heavenly bodies.

When Marcellus, the Roman consul, besieged Syracuse, Archimedes constructed machines, which suddenly raised up in the air the ships of the enemy from the bay before the city, and then let them fall with such violence into the water that they sunk. He set them also on fire with his burning-glasses. By such means, the inventive genius and industry of Archimedes were able to baffle all the efforts, and to destroy all the great and stupendous machines and military engines of the Romans during three successive years. The perseverance of Marcellus at last obtained the victory. The inattention of the inhabitants during their nocturnal celebration of the festivals of Diana, favored his operations; he forcibly entered the town, and made himself master of it. The Roman conqueror enriched the capital of Italy with the spoils of Syracuse, and when he was accused of rapaciousness, for stripping the city of all its paintings and ornaments, he confessed that he had done it to adorn the public buildings of Rome, and to introduce a taste for the fine arts and elegance of the Greeks among his countrymen.

When the town was taken, the Roman general gave strict orders to his soldiers not to hurt Archimedes, and even offered a reward to him who should bring him alive and safe into his presence. All these precautions were useless; the philosopher was so deeply engaged in solving a problem, that he was even ignorant that the enemy were in possession of the town; and a soldier, without knowing who he was, killed him, because he refused to follow him, B. C. 212. Marcellus raised a monument over him, and placed upon it a cylinder and a sphere; but the place remained long unknown, till Cicero, during his quæstorship in Sicily, found it near one of the gates of Syracuse, surrounded with thorns and brambles.

It has been supposed by some that Archimedes raised the site of the towns and villages of Egypt, and began those mounds of earth by means of which communication is kept from town to town, during the inundations of the Nile. The story of his burning-glass had always appeared fabulous to some of the moderns, till the experiments of Buffon demonstrated it beyond contradiction. These celebrated glasses were supposed to be reflectors made of metal, and capable of producing their effect at the distance of a bow-shot. The manner in which he discovered how much silver a goldsmith had mixed with gold in making a golden crown for King Hiero, is well known to every modern hydrostatic, and in fact is an interesting mathematical question which finds a place in most modern arithmetics, for the exercise of the skill in figures of young students in that noble science. Among the wild schemes of Archimedes, is his saying, that by means of his machines he could move the earth with ease if placed on a fixed spot near it. Many of the works of Archimedes are extant. The best edition of his works is that of David Rivaltius, folio, Paris, 1615.

HANNIBAL.

HANNIBAL, a celebrated Carthaginian general, the son of Amilcar, was born B. C. 247. He was educated in his father's camp, and inured from his early years to the labors of the field. He passed into Spain when nine years old, and at the request of his father, took a solemn oath that he never would be at peace with the Romans. After his father's death he was appointed over the cavalry in Spain; and, some time after, upon the death of Asdrubal, he was invested with the command of all the armies of Carthage, though not yet in the twenty-fifth year of his age. In three years of continual success he subdued all the nations of Spain which opposed the Carthaginian power, and took Saguntum after a siege of eight months. The city was in alliance with the Romans; and its fall was the cause of the second Punic war, which Hannibal prepared to support with all the courage and prudence of a consummate general. He levied three large armies, one of which he sent to Africa; he left another in Spain; and marched at the head of the third toward Italy. This army some have calculated at twenty thousand foot and six thousand horse; others say that it consisted of one hundred thousand foot and twenty thousand horse. He came to the Alps, and after much trouble gained the top in nine days. The passage of the Alps by this bold leader, which struck the utmost terror into the Romans, appeared to them so prodigious that the embellishments of fiction seemed to add nothing of wonder to the recital, and it soon began to be believed that this extraordinary passage had been effected by the use of vinegar, in which the Alpine rocks were dissolved. Modern writers, however, by the application of a just criticism, and being, moreover, less excited and less interested on this point, have generally assigned to the marvellous story its proper place among the inventions of fancy. An author, nevertheless, of great learning and genius at the present day, seems, by the weight of his opinion to give the story of the older writers fresh currency and new authority; since he manifestly inclines to receive the tradition. He thinks, however, that there might have been one difficulty in the way, and ingeniously allows that he can not imagine how Hannibal obtained a "sufficient supply for his purpose." He was opposed by the Romans as soon as he entered Italy; and after he had defeated Publius Cornelius Scipio and Sempronius, near the Rhone, the Po, and the Trebia, he crossed the Apennines and invaded Etruria. He defeated the army of the consul Flaminius near the lake Trasimenus, and soon after met the two consuls, C. Terentius and L. Æmilius at Cannæ. His army consisted of forty thousand foot and ten thousand horse, when he engaged the Romans at the celebrated battle of Cannæ. The slaughter was so great, that no less than forty thousand Romans were killed, and the conqueror made a bridge with the dead carcasses; and, as a sign of his victory, he sent to Carthage three bushels of gold rings, which had been taken from six thousand Roman knights slain in the battle.

Instead of following up the advantage which this victory held out to him, Hannibal rested at Capua, which enabled the Romans to recover from their fright, so that when the Carthaginians encamped before the city, their appearance created no alarm. Hannibal, finding it hopeless to make any attempt upon the capital, retreated. Two years afterward he defeated Marcellus; but notwithstanding this, finding his affairs growing desperate in Italy, where he had now been sixteen years, he made overtures of peace, which terminated without effect. The battle of Zama, in which he lost twenty thousand men, completely ruined Hannibal, and he retired to Asia, where he took refuge with Prusias, king of Bithynia; but being apprehensive that he should be delivered up to the Romans, he took poison, at the age of sixty-four, B. C. 183.

POMPEY.

POMPEY, surnamed the Great, or Cneius Pompeius Magnus, was born about B. C. 106. He studied the art of war under his father, and, when he was but twenty-three, raised three legions, with which he joined Sylla, whose opponents he drove out of Sicily and Africa. That commander recalled him to Rome, saluting him on his return with the appellation of the Great. Pompey also obtained the honors of a triumph. After the death of Sylla, he again met and defeated the Marian faction, quelled a revolt in Spain, and obtained a second triumph. He was soon after chosen consul; in which office he restored the tribunitian power to its original dignity, and in forty days drove the pirates from the Mediterranean, where for years they had preyed upon and nearly destroyed the whole naval power of Rome. He next was engaged in war with Mithridates, king of Pontus, whom he so defeated in a general engagement, that the Asiatic monarch escaped with difficulty from the field of battle. He next entered Armenia, received the submission of King Tigranes, conquered the Albanians and Iberians, visited countries scarce known to the Romans, and, like a master of the world, disposed of kingdoms and provinces, and received homage from twelve crowned heads at once. After pushing his conquests as far as the Red sea, Pompey returned to Italy with all the pomp and majesty of an eastern conqueror. The Romans knew his power, and dreaded his approach. Pompey, however, banished their fears; he disbanded his army, and the conqueror of Asia entered Rome like a private citizen.

Pompey soon after united his interest with that of Cæsar and Crassus, and formed the first triumvirate, which was cemented by the marriage of Pompey with Julia, the daughter of Cæsar. By this arrangement the provinces of the republic were arbitrarily divided among the triumvirs. Pompey was allotted Africa and Spain, while Crassus repaired to Syria, to add Parthia to the Roman dominions, and Cæsar remained satisfied with the continuation of his power as governor of Gaul for five additional years. But this powerful confederacy was soon broken by the sudden death of Julia, and the total defeat of Crassus in Syria; and the jarring interests of Pompey and Cæsar soon led to a civil war. Cæsar's petitions were received with coldness by the Roman senate; and by the influence of Pompey, a decree was passed to strip him of his power. Cæsar no sooner heard of it than he made it a plea of resistance, crossed the Rubicon, which was the boundary of his province, and entered Italy sword in hand. When he gained the western parts of the Roman empire to his cause, Cæsar crossed Italy and entered Greece, where Pompey had retired, supported by all the powers of the east, the wishes of the republican Romans, and by a numerous and well-disciplined army. In the plains of Pharsalia the two armies engaged. The cavalry of Pompey soon gave way, and the general retired to his camp, overwhelmed with grief and shame. But here there was no safety; and, disguised, he fled to the seacoast, and thence to Egypt, where he hoped to find a safe asylum, with Ptolemy, whom he had once protected. A boat being sent to take him on shore, he left his galley, after a tender parting with his wife Cornelia, whom he had lately married. The Egyptian sailors sat in sullen silence in the boat, and, when Pompey disembarked, Achilles and Septimius assassinated him. His wife, whose eyes followed him to the shore, on witnessing the bloody scene, hastened away to avoid his miserable fate. He died B. C. 48, aged fifty-eight. His head was cut off and sent to Cæsar, who turned from it with horror, and shed a flood of tears. His body was left naked on the shore, till Philip, one of his freedmen, raised a burning pile, and deposited his ashes under a mound of earth. Cæsar erected a monument over his remains; and Adrian, two centuries after, had it repaired at his own expense.

CICERO.

MARCUS TULLIUS CICERO, the prince of Roman orators, was born at Arpinum B. C. 106. He was the son of a Roman knight, and lineally descended from the ancient kings of the Sabines. His mother's name was Helvia. After displaying many promising abilities at school, he was taught philosophy at Piso, and law by Mutius Scævola. The vehemence with which he had attacked Clodius proved injurious to him; and when his enemy was made tribune, Cicero was banished from Rome, though twenty thousand young men were supporters of his innocence. After sixteen months absence, he entered Rome with universal satisfaction, and when he was sent, with the power of proconsul, to Cilicia, his integrity and prudence made him successful against the enemy, and at his return he was honored with a triumph, which the factions prevented him to enjoy. After much hesitation during the civil commotions between Cæsar and Pompey, he joined himself to the latter, and followed him to Greece. When victory had declared in favor of Cæsar, at the battle of Pharsalia, Cicero went to Brundisium, and was reconciled to the conqueror, who treated him with great humanity. From this time Cicero retired into the country, and seldom visited Rome. When Cæsar had been stabbed in the senate, Cicero recommended a general amnesty, and was the most earnest to decree the provinces to Brutus and Cassius. But when he saw the interest of Cæsar's murderers decrease, and Antony come into power, he retired to Athens. He soon after returned, but lived in perpetual fear of assassination. Augustus courted the approbation of Cicero, and expressed his wish to be his colleague in the consulship. But his wish was not sincere; he soon forgot his former profession of friendship; and when the two consuls had been killed at Mutina, Augustus joined his interest to that of Antony, and the triumvirate was soon after formed. The great enmity which Cicero bore to Antony was fatal to him; and Augustus, Antony, and Lepidus, the triumvirs, to destroy all cause of quarrel, and each to despatch his enemies, produced their list of proscription. About two hundred were doomed to death, and Cicero was among the number upon the list of Antony. Augustus yielded a man to whom he partly owed his greatness, and Cicero was pursued by the emissaries of Antony, among whom were Popilius, whom he had defended upon an accusation of parricide. He had fled in a litter toward the sea of Caieta, and when the assassins came up to him, he put his head out of the litter, and it was severed from the body by Herennius. This memorable event happened in December, 43 B. C., after the enjoyment of life for sixty-three years, eleven months, and five days. The head and the right hand of the orator were carried to Rome, and hung up in the Roman forum; and Fulvia, the wife of Antony, drew the tongue out of the mouth, and bored it through repeatedly with a gold bodkin; verifying, by this act of inhumanity, what Cicero had once observed, that "no animal is more revengeful than a woman."

The eloquence of Cicero in the Roman senate was so ardent as to rival the illustrious fame of Demosthenes; and in the elegance of his writings, and the clear and lucid arguments of his philosophy, he equalled the ablest authors, and the most renowned sages of Greece. He had the singular fortune of discovering, and defeating, the conspiracy of Catiline, during his consulship, and deserved to be called, for his services, another founder of Rome. In the struggles between Cæsar and the republic he however betrayed irresolution, and probably to that timidity, which feared boldly to proclaim its sentiments, he owed his downfall. Of his works, which are universally known, and far too numerous to be even named here, very many editions have been published



Cicero.—After a picture by Rubens, from an antique Bust.

JULIUS CÆSAR.

CAIUS JULIUS CÆSAR, the first Roman emperor, and one of the greatest men that even Rome ever produced, was born B. C. 99. At the early age of sixteen he lost his father, who was a prætor; and, very shortly after that event, he married Cornelia, the daughter of Cornelius Cinna, the friend of Marius. This connection gave great offence to the powerful Sylla, who, having vainly endeavored to bring about a divorce, caused Cæsar to be proscribed. Cæsar, however, escaped the search that was made after him, and Sylla was at length induced to exempt him from prosecution, though he did so very unwillingly, telling those who interceded with him, that they would repent their kindness, as he could see in Cæsar the germ of many Mariuses. Having distinguished himself as an orator in the impeachment of Cornelius Dolabella, he speedily grew a public favorite, and became successively, military tribune, quæstor, and ædile. The profusion with which he lavished his liberality while in these offices, involved him very deeply in debt; but having obtained the government of Spain, he contrived to amass money sufficient for their discharge, though they are said to have amounted to a sum equal to eight millions of dollars; a fact which, as he held the government only a year, says but little for his scrupulousness as to the means he used for self-aggrandizement. Having united with Pompey and Crassus in the memorable coalition, called "the first triumvirate," he became consul, and then obtained the government of Gaul, with the command of four legions. And now it was that his genius had ample scope. His military career was rapid and brilliant. Belgians, Helvetians, and Nervians, succumbed to him. The German tribes were repulsed, and Gaul was wholly subjected to the Roman power. He invaded Britain, a country till then unknown to the Roman people, and which he twice reduced to apparent submission. A view of the first landing of Cæsar in England (from a design by Blakey, a celebrated historical painter of the last century) is given on the opposite page. These transactions, which the limits of this sketch will not permit us to narrate in detail, are all beautifully and graphically related in his Commentaries. His successes had the effect of exciting the jealousy of Pompey, who had influence enough in the senate to cause Cæsar to be recalled from the government of Gaul. He refused to obey this order, and marched with his army into Italy, Pompey retiring into Greece. Having seized the public treasury, and commissioned Mark Antony to watch over his interests in Rome, he proceeded to Spain, where a large army remained in Pompey's interest, which he defeated, and on his return to Rome was declared dictator. He then followed Pompey into Greece, and defeated him in the memorable battle of Pharsalia, from which Pompey escaped only to be assassinated in Egypt. Having crushed every attempt at resistance on the part of the sons and friends of Pompey, and having been honored with four several triumphs, he was declared perpetual dictator; a title which some of his friends wished to altar to that of king. And as the great body of the Roman people, dazzled by his military genius, and gratified by the liberality of his largesses, were insensible of, or indifferent to, his insatiable thirst for domination, it is more than probable that he would have become an absolute king, but that Brutus and other republicans penetrated his designs, and sternly resolved to make his life the sacrifice to the freedom of his country. Notwithstanding dark hints had been given to him of his danger, he attended a meeting of the senate without taking any measures for the safety of his person, and fell beneath the daggers of the conspirators on the ides of March in the year 43 B. C., and in the fifty-sixth of his age.

The learning of Cæsar deserves commendation as well as his military character. He reformed the calendar. He wrote his Commentaries on the Gallic

Julius Cæsar Landing in Britain.



wars on the spot where he fought his battles ; and the composition has been admired for the elegance as well as the correctness of its style. This valuable book was nearly lost ; and when Cæsar saved his life in the bay of Alexandria, he was obliged to swim from his ship, with his arms in one hand, and his Commentaries in the other. Besides the Gallic and civil wars, he wrote other pieces, which are now lost. His qualities were such that in every battle he could not but be conqueror, and in a civil position master ; and to his sense of his superiority over the rest of the world, or to his ambition, we are to attribute his saying that he " rather be first in a little village than second at Rome." It was after his conquest over Pharnaces in one day, that he made use of these remarkable words to express the celerity of his operations : " Veni, vidi, vici !" When he was in his first campaign in Spain, he was observed to gaze at a statue of Alexander, and even shed tears at the recollection that that hero had conquered the world at an age in which he himself had done nothing.

VIRGIL.

THERE exist but few authentic materials from which we can collect any circumstances concerning the life of this poet. It appears that his father was a man of low birth, and that, at one period of his life, he was engaged in the meanest employments. According to some authorities he was a potter or brick-maker ; and, according to others, the hireling of a travelling merchant, called Magus, or Maius. He so ingratiated himself, however, with his master, that he received his daughter Maia in marriage, and was intrusted with the charge of a farm, which his father-in-law had acquired in the vicinity of Mantua. Virgil was the offspring of these humble parents, and was born about the year 70 B. C. at the village of Andes (now Pietola), which lies a few miles from Mantua. His first years were spent at Cremona ; he next studied at Milan, and lastly at Naples, where he learned Greek under Parthenias, and philosophy from Syro the Epicurean. Physic and mathematics constituted his favorite objects, and he embraced the doctrines of Plato. He removed to Rome when his country was partitioned out among the soldiers after the battle of Philippi. There, by means of his friend Mæcenas, he was introduced to Augustus, who restored to him his estate. On this occasion he wrote his first " Eclogue ;" and, on completing the " Bucolics," he undertook the " Georgics." After these were finished, and had been read by Augustus, he began the " Æneid," at the request of the emperor. This great poem has left the palm of superiority undecided between Homer and Virgil. The poet was engaged eleven years upon this immortal work, but died without revising it, of pulmonary disease, at Brundisium, B. C. 19, aged fifty-one. When he felt the near approach of death, he ordered his friends to burn the " Æneid," as an imperfect poem. Augustus, however, interposed to save a work, which he no doubt foresaw would confer immortality on the poet, and on the prince who patronised him.

The remains of Virgil were, in accordance with his wish, taken to Naples, by order of Augustus, and there interred. A view of the ruins of his tomb is given on the opposite page. It is situated on the hill of Posilippo, in the immediate vicinity of the city of Naples, where it has been visited for centuries by innumerable travellers of all nations. It stands on the brink of a steep cliff, and is overshadowed by trees that have their roots in some rocks that flank it. The myrtles flourish on the roof, and all around that quiet nook, filling the air with sweetness ; and the ivy not only decorates the tomb, but the sides of the rocks, and the face of the cliff on which the tomb stands.



Tomb of Virgil, Naples.

BOADICEA.

THIS extraordinary woman, celebrated for the valor she displayed against the Romans, was the wife of Prasatagus, king of the Iceni, one of the states into which Britain was divided, while the island was subject to Roman authority. But to give her history, we must briefly narrate that of the times in which she lived.

About the sixtieth year of our era, Suetonius Paulinus, one of the greatest generals of the age, was appointed governor of Britain, and allowed an army of one hundred thousand men to keep the natives in subjection. The infamous Nero* was then emperor of Rome, and Paulinus was a fit instrument to execute



Head of Nero—From a Bust in the Vatican.

the orders of his master, who cared not how many people suffered, if his unbounded avarice and lust were satisfied. To fill the coffers of the emperor the Britons were subjected to the most cruel taxation, and those who but recently were in the full enjoyment of peace and liberty, were reduced to the most abject slavery.

But the inherent principles of freedom, actively alive in the breast of the Britons, could not be destroyed, and when the oppressions of their conquerors became too severe to be borne, they raised the banner of revolt, around which every true Briton rallied. The spirit of revolution, prompted by a love of

* This tyrant, whose characteristic portrait is shown above, was son of Caius Domitius, and of Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus. He was adopted by Claudius, A. D. 50, and four years after succeeded him on the throne. At the commencement of his reign his conduct excited great hopes in the Romans; he appeared just liberal, affable, polished, complaisant, and kind; but this was a mask which hid the most depraved mind that ever disgraced a human being. He caused his mother to be assassinated, and vindicated the unnatural act to the senate on a pretence that Agrippina had plotted against him. He also commenced a dreadful persecution of the Christians; and he is even charged with having caused Rome to be set on fire in several places, and during the conflagration to have beheld the scene from a high tower, where he amused himself by singing to his lyre. This atrocity has, however, been denied; and it is needless to swell the catalogue of his crimes by inserting any one of doubtful authority. His cruelties, extravagance, and debauchery, at length roused the public resentment. Piso formed a conspiracy against the tyrant, but it was discovered and defeated. That of Galba, however, proved more successful; and Nero being abandoned by his flatterers, put an end to his existence, A. D. 68.

liberty and keen resentment for wrongs inflicted, which had been increasing in intensity for a long time, broke out into open rebellion, at a time when Paulinus was absent upon the island of Mona or Anglesey. A peculiar act of cruelty on the part of the Romans, was the immediate cause of this general revolt.

Prasatagus, a prince much beloved for his mildness and equity, when on his death-bed made an equal division of his kingdom, one half of which he bequeathed to the Roman emperor, and the other to his family. The reason for making this bequest to the emperor, was the vain hope, that it would so far satisfy his rapacity, as to secure his protection for his wife and children. But the moment that the death of Prasatagus came to the ears of Paulinus, he sent an army sufficient to take forcible possession of the whole of the wealth and kingdom of the deceased prince. Against this unjust act, his queen, Boadicea, a woman of extraordinary spirit, warmly remonstrated; but her remonstrance was met with the most brutal treatment from the minions of the governor. They went so far as to scourge her publicly, and not content with this inhuman injury of her person, those brutal men ravished her daughters in her presence!

This outrage aroused the Iceni to revenge, and every man took a solemn oath to avenge this wrong inflicted upon their queen and family. The Trinobantes next raised the war-cry, and in every part of the island where the injuries of the queen of the Iceni became known, the indignant Britons crowded around the standard of revolt, eager for the blood of the Roman barbarians. Camelodunum (London) was the only town that remained loyal, but even there, the Romans were not safe. Throughout the whole island an indiscriminate massacre of men, women, and children, took place; and in one instance a legion of the Roman army attempting to stay the dreadful retribution of the Iceni, were all slaughtered to a man. In London the revolvers made terrible havoc. The Romans in great numbers fled to their principal temple for protection, but it was set on fire, and with its living contents entirely consumed. That outrage upon the queen of the Iceni, cost Rome eighty thousand of her citizens!

As soon as Paulinus heard of this general revolt, he left Mona and hastened to the assistance of his people. This the Britons expected, and the armies of the several states were combined, and, by unanimous consent, Boadicea, was chosen commander-in-chief. The combined army of the Britons amounted to one hundred thousand men, while Paulinus could muster only about ten thousand. Alarmed at his comparatively weak condition, and the numerical strength of the revolvers, the Roman general was perplexed to know what course to take. First he resolved to shut himself up in London, and bide the issue of a siege, but when he found the triumphant enemy marching toward the capital, he resolved to conquer them or die. The inhabitants of London, begged him to remain in their defence, but he yielded to the solicitations of his soldiers, and the dictates of his own judgment, and resolved to do battle with the enemy.

The Roman army marched out into the open country and awaited the approach of the Britons. They chose for their camp a narrow strip of land, with a dense forest in the rear, while before them spread out a spacious plain. On this plain the host of Boadicea encamped, now numbering (including the women and children, who had been invited by the soldier-queen to witness the contest, and share in the spoils of the undoubted victory) two hundred and thirty thousand. Boadicea, still stung with the wrongs she had suffered, was eager to engage with Paulinus. With her daughters beside her, in a war chariot, she traversed the ranks of the Britons, inflaming their zeal for her cause, and animating them with courage, by passionate addresses.

Loud shouts rang along the lines of the British army, and exclamations of loyalty were heard on every side. But while these demonstrations denoted confidence of victory on the part of the Britons, Paulinus was unawed, and by forcible appeals to his soldiers, he raised their hopes and courage to the high-



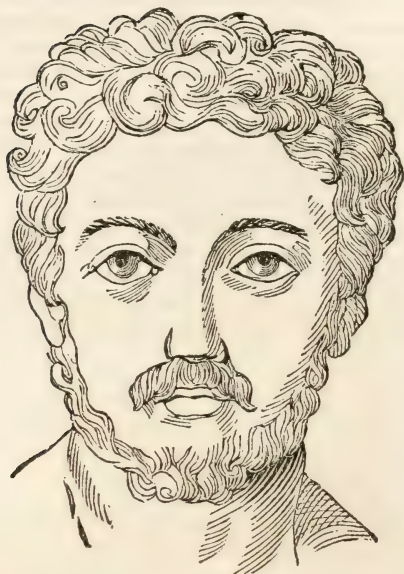
Boadicea encouraging the Britons.

est pitch. He pointed to the multitude of Britons, as a handful of men and immense number of women and children—he exhorted them to believe the Britons to be cowards—charged them to keep close together so as to advance in an unbroken phalanx, and to fight sword in hand after they had thrown their darts. Then ordering a charge to be sounded, the Romans advanced in a solid column, hurled their javelins with terrible effect, with desperate power broke into the ranks of the Britons, and with sword in hand spread death and desolation in their path. Such an unexpected and fierce onslaught, struck terror to the islanders, for they supposed the Romans would be awed by their numbers; and it was in vain that Boadicea encouraged them to repel the attack. They fled in dismay in every direction, the women and children were exposed to the fury of the Romans, neither age nor sex, nor even horses were spared, and when the sun set upon Britain that night, more than seventy thousand of her children lay dead upon that battlefield. Boadicea and her daughters narrowly escaped falling into the hands of the conquerors; but stung with remorse and despair at her accumulated misfortunes, she took poison and died

JOSEPHUS.

FLAVIUS JOSEPHUS, the celebrated historian of the Jews, was born at Jerusalem, A. D. 37. His father Mattathias, was descended from the ancient high-priests of the Jews, and his mother was of the Maccabean race. He was early instructed in Hebrew learning, and became an ornament of the sect of the Pharisees, to which he belonged. When twenty-six years old he visited Rome, for the purpose of obtaining the release of some prisoners whom Felix had sent to the capital; on which occasion he was introduced to Poppæa, afterward the wife of Nero; and, on his return, was made governor of Galilee. He afterward obtained the command of the Jewish army, and supported with courage, wisdom, and resolution, a siege of seven weeks, in the fortified town of Jotapata, where he was attacked by Vespasian and Titus. The town was betrayed to the enemy; forty thousand of the inhabitants were cut to pieces, and twelve hundred were made prisoners. Josephus was discovered in a cave, where he had concealed himself, and given up to the Roman general, who was about to send him to Nero; but his life was spared at the intercession of Titus, who became his patron, and whom he accompanied to the siege of Jerusalem. On arriving before the city he was sent to his countrymen with offers of peace, and he advised them to submit to the Roman power; but they treated him with contumely, and rejected his counsel. At the capture of the city, however, he was enabled to deliver his brother and several of his friends without ransom. He accompanied Titus back to Rome, where he was rewarded with the freedom of the city, and received a pension and other favors from Vespasian and his son; and, as a mark of gratitude, he then assumed their family name of Flavius. His "History of the Jewish War, and the Destruction of Jerusalem," in seven books, was composed at the command of Vespasian, and is singularly interesting and affecting, as the historian was an eyewitness of all he relates. St. Jerome calls him the Livy of the Greeks. His "Jewish Antiquities," in twenty books, written in Greek, is a very noble work; and his discourse "Upon the Martyrdom of the Maccabees" is a masterpiece of eloquence. Though, in some cases, inimical to the Christians, yet he has commended our Savior so warily, that St. Jerome calls him a Christian writer. He is supposed to have died about A. D. 95, but the exact date is uncertain.

ANTONINUS.

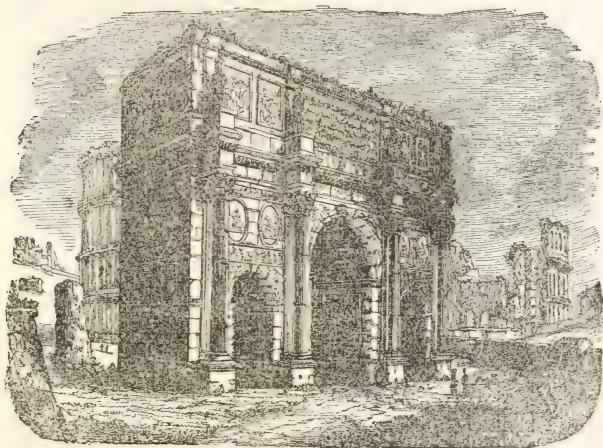


Head of Antoninus — From a Bust in the Vatican.

TITUS AURELIUS FULVIUS ANTONINUS PIUS, emperor of Rome, was born at Lanuvium, A. D. 86. He was adopted by the emperor Adrian, whom he succeeded A. D. 138. This prince is remarkable for all the virtues that can form a perfect statesman, philosopher, and king. He rebuilt whatever cities had been destroyed by wars in former reigns. He suffered the governors of the provinces to remain long in the administration, that no opportunity of extortion might be given to new-comers. When told of conquering heroes, he said with Scipio, "I prefer the life and preservation of a citizen to the death of one hundred enemies." He did not persecute the Christians like his predecessors, but his life was a scene of universal benevolence. His last moments were easy, though preceded by a lingering illness. He extended the boundaries of the Roman province in Britain, by raising a rampart between the Friths of Clyde and Forth; but he waged no war during his reign, and only repulsed the enemies of the empire who appeared in the field. He died in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and after a reign of twenty-three years, A. D. 161. He was succeeded by his adopted son, M. Aurelius Antoninus, surnamed the philosopher, a prince as virtuous as his father. He raised to the imperial dignity his brother L. Verus, whose voluptuousness and dissipation were as conspicuous as the moderation of the philosopher. During their reign, the Quadi, Parthians, and Marcomanni, were defeated. After the war with the Quadi had been finished, Verus died of an apoplexy, and Antoninus survived him eight years, and died in his sixty-first year, after a reign of twenty-nine years and ten days. His death occasioned universal mourning throughout the empire; the Roman senate and people voted him a god, and his image was long afterward regarded with peculiar veneration. This emperor's book of meditations in Greek and Latin has been often printed, and universally admired for the excellence of its morality.

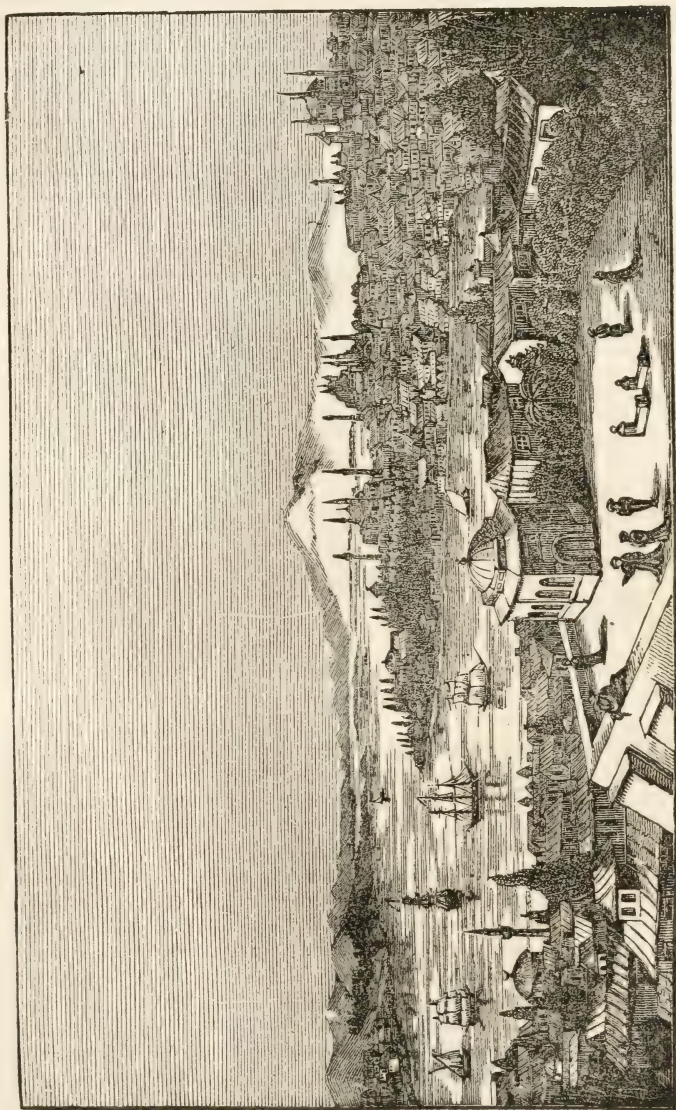
CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

CAIUS FLAVIUS VALERIUS AURELIUS CLAUDIUS CONSTANTINE, surnamed the GREAT, emperor of the Romans, was the son of Constantius Chlorus, by Helena, and born A. D. 274. On the death of his father, in 306, he was proclaimed emperor by the troops. After defeating the Franks, he crossed the Rhine into Belgium, which he overran. In 307 he married Fausta, the daughter of Maximinian, but he was soon involved in a war with his father-in-law, who assumed the title of emperor. The usurper's reign was brief; and on his being taken prisoner, Constantine caused him to be strangled. This involved him in a war with Maxentius, son of Maximinian, in which the latter was defeated and drowned in the Tiber. In memory of this victory the senate and people of Rome erected the arch of Constantine, and dedicated it to that emperor. It



Arch of Constantine.

stands at the junction of the Celian and Palatine hills, in the Via Appia, and is the most splendid, because the best-preserved edifice of the kind remaining in Rome. It was when going to fight Maxentius, that Constantine, as he alleged to Eusebius, saw a luminous cross in the heavens with the inscription: "*In hoc signo vinces*"—"Under this sign thou shalt conquer"). He accordingly caused a standard to be made in imitation of this cross; marched to Rome in triumph; published the memorable edict of toleration in favor of the Christians; and was declared by the senate, chief, Augustus, and *pontifex maximus*. Constantine had married his daughter to Licinius; but the latter, jealous of his fame, took up arms against him, and they met in Pannonia, A. D. 314. Constantine, surrounded by bishops and priests, invoked the aid of "the true God;" while Licinius, calling upon his soothsayers and magicians, relied on them and their gods for protection. The Christian emperor was victorious, and a peace was granted to Licinius; but he afterward renewed hostilities, was again defeated, and finally put to death. Thus Constantine became, in 325, sole head of the eastern and western empires; and his first care was the establishment of peace and order. He displayed great courage and love of justice, and evinced an ardent zeal for the Christian religion, which he eventually established in his vast dominions. He also endeavored to increase the solid greatness of his empire, and among other useful works, founded the city of Constantinople



Constantinople.

This magnificent city (a view of which is given on the opposite page) was won from the degenerate Greeks by Mohammed II. in 1453, and is now the capital of the Turkish empire. The ground it occupies is marked out by nature as the site of a great city. A gently declining promontory, secured by narrow seas, at the east of Europe, stretches out to meet the continent of Asia, from which its extreme point is separated by so narrow a strait that in a quarter of an hour a boat can row from one continent to the other. This strait or channel, which is called the Bosphorus, running about fifteen miles from the Black sea, between the beautiful shores of Europe and Asia, looks like a stately river, until it sweeps by the angle of Constantinople and enters the sea of Marmora. But just before it is lost in that sea, it makes a deep elbow to the right, flowing between the triangle of Constantinople proper, and its suburbs of Galata and Pera, and forming the port which is called the Golden Horn. This is the most convenient as well as the most beautiful harbor in the world.

Although the actions of Constantine, on the whole, entitled him to the proud surname of "The Great," yet various acts of cruelty, and above all, the murder of his son Crispus, have left a stain upon his character alike as a man, a Christian, and an emperor. He died in 337, after a reign of thirty-one years; and he divided his empire between his three sons, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans.

SAINT PATRICK.

SAINT PATRICK was born in the year 387, somewhere in the neighborhood of Boulogne, in the ancient armoric Britain. In the year 403 an Irish monarch, Nial of the Nine Hostages, ravaged some of the maritime districts of Gaul, and St. Patrick, then in his sixteenth year, was taken prisoner and carried to Ireland, where he was purchased as a slave by a person residing in that part of the country now called Antrim. Here his duty was to tend sheep, and his lonely occupation in the forest and on the mountain begat that depth of feeling which afterward inspired his future life. He spent six years as a shepherd, when the desire of liberty became strong, and he made his escape to the southwestern coast, where he found a vessel bound for Gaul ready to sail. Soon after his arrival among his friends, he entered a monastery or college at Tours, where he spent four years, and, it is believed, embraced the ecclesiastical profession. But his active mind was not fitted for the cloister, and his imagination dwelt with fervor upon the country of his captivity. He frequently dreamed that he was invited to return in the name of the Irish people. He did not however arrive in Ireland for the second time until 422. Landing at Dublin, he set out with his followers for that part of the country where so many of his youthful years had been spent. On their way they were taken for sea-robbers or pirates, and were attacked by a chief named Dicho and his followers. The holy and benignant countenance of the saint is said to have produced so powerful an effect upon Dicho as to have changed his destructive purposes, and Dicho soon became his first Christian convert. Here St. Patrick celebrated divine service in a barn called Subhul Padruic, or Patrick's barn. His old master could not be prevailed upon to give up his pagan notions. As the festival of Easter approached, the saint determined upon celebrating it in the neighborhood of Tara, where an assemblage of princes and chiefs was about to take place. Arriving at Slane, he and his followers lighted the paschal fire on the eve of Easter-day. A great pagan festival was to be held at the same time by the princes and chiefs at Tara, at the head of whom was

King Leogaire, and the lighting of the pile in the palace was to be the signal for its commencement. Great therefore was the astonishment of the assembly on seeing the fire of St. Patrick blazing before that of the halls of Tara. For this offence the saint and his followers were ordered to appear before the monarch. Here he found an opportunity of explaining the nature of the religion which he had come to extend, and conversion followed his judicious exposition of its superiority; but Leogaire would not give up his old creed, though he freely gave permission to St. Patrick to go among the people and make known his views to them. Great multitudes were converted, and St. Patrick destroyed both the idol and the worship of the great druidical god called Crom-cruach, or the head of the sun, in the plain of slaughter, so called from the human sacrifices which were offered up to the idol. In the place of this monument of a cruel superstition he erected a Christian church. Success continued to attend his steps during the whole course of his exertions to extend Christianity in Ireland; the Druids and other opponents, whose enmity he had to encounter, offering a feebleness of resistance than is usual with the supporters of a tottering system. His converts included men of rank and learning, who afterward became the ornament of the new religion. Churches—formed of hurdles, or wattles, clay and thatch—were erected in considerable numbers throughout Ireland, and to give to the new system the advantages of organization, the see of Armagh was founded, and it was filled by St. Patrick himself. The decline of his life was chiefly spent at Armagh and Subhul. He died at the latter place, which thus witnessed his earliest and latest exertions to promote Christianity in Ireland. His death took place on the 17th of March, in the year 465. He was in his seventy-eighth or seventy-ninth year, and had spent the last forty-three years of his life without having once quitted Ireland. Some time before his death he wrote his "Confession," which contains an account of the improved moral state of Ireland, and of the share which he had in effecting the regeneration of the Irish.

The accounts of St. Patrick, which have generally been current contain many erroneous and fabulous statements. But his life does not deserve to be disfigured by monkish legends. The absurd belief that he drove out serpents and other venomous creatures from Ireland is only one of many similar miracles ascribed to him. In the most ancient documents of Irish history there is not the least allusion to venomous animals ever having been found in that country

MOHAMMED.

MOHAMMED, or MAHOMET, the founder of a religion which has spread over a considerable portion of the globe, was born in 570, at Mecca, a city of Arabia, of the noble family of Koreish. Losing his father in his infancy, the guardianship of him devolved on his uncle Abu Taleb, who employed him to go with his caravans from Mecca to Damascus. In this employment he continued till he was twenty-eight years of age when he married Khadijah, a rich widow. He continued to act for some time as a merchant; but a disposition to religious contemplation seems to have attended him from his early youth; and having remarked on his travels the infinite variety of sects, which prevailed, he formed the design of founding a new one. He accordingly spent much of his time in a cave near Mecca, seemingly alone, and employed in meditation and prayer; but in reality he called to his aid a Persian Jew, well versed in the history and laws of his persuasion, and two Christians, one of the Jacobite and the other of the Nestorian sect. With the help of these men he

framed the celebrated "Koran," or "Book," which he pretended to have received at different times from Heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel. At the age of forty he publicly assumed the prophetic character, calling himself the apostle of God. At first he had only his wife and eight other followers; but in three years the number of his disciples were very considerably augmented. On these he imposed the most marvellous tales, and pretended to have passed into the highest heavens in one night, on the back of a beautiful ass, called Al-borak, and accompanied by the angel Gabriel. In the tenth year of his mission, he lost both Abu Taleb and his faithful wife Khadijah, which so exposed him to the enmity of the Koreishites, that he found it necessary to make a temporary retreat to the city of Tayef. The fundamental doctrine inculcated in the Koran was "There is but one God and Mohammed is his prophet." His proselytes rapidly increased; and as they swore fidelity to him, and proffered their assistance, he adopted the resolution of encountering his enemies with force. Being the more exasperated at this, they formed a conspiracy to murder him: warned of the imminent danger, he left Mecca, accompanied only by Abubeker, and concealed himself in a neighboring cave. Here he spent three days undiscovered, after which he arrived at Medina. It is from this event, called the Hegira or Flight, that the Mussulmans compute their time: it corresponds with the 16th of June, 622. Mohammed now assumed the sacerdotal and regal dignity, married Ayesha, daughter of Abubeker, and declared his resolution to propagate his doctrines by the sword. The hopes of booty were thus added to the religious zeal of his partisans; and after many minor exploits with various hostile tribes of the Jewish persuasion, he sent a summons to the principal neighboring princes, particularly Chosrou Parviz, king of Persia, Heraclius, emperor of Constantinople, Mokawkas, ruler of Egypt, the king of Ethiopia, and the princes of various districts of Arabia, to embrace his new revelation of the divine law. The more remote and powerful parties gave no heed to him; others, however, submitted; and, having made himself master of Mecca, the Arabs, who regarded it as a holy city, embraced the proffered creed. In the tenth year of the Hegira, Mohammed undertook his farewell pilgrimage to Mecca. On this occasion he was surrounded with the utmost splendor, and attended by ninety thousand, or, as some say, one hundred and fifty thousand friends. This was the last important event of his life. He died soon after his return to Medina, in his sixty-third year. The Mohammedan writers undoubtedly exaggerate the corporeal and mental endowments of their prophet: it is, however, very credible, that there was a prepossessing majesty in his appearance, and that he united much natural eloquence with a decisive and enterprising mind. The reverence which the faithful Moslems pay to the prophet, and all that is connected with him in the remotest degree, proves the sincerity with which they believe in his Divine mission. The wonder-loving populace alone gives credence to the fable that Mohammed's coffin is suspended in the air: on the contrary, he lies buried at Medina, where he died; and an urn, enclosed in the holy chapel, constitutes his sepulchre, which is surrounded with iron trellis-work, and is accessible to no one.

The success of Mohammed's imposture during his lifetime, is not more astonishing than the permanent establishment which his doctrines have maintained over one of the fairest portions of the globe, during near twelve hundred years. The Koran is a compound of sublime truths, of incredible tales, and ludicrous events, but the whole is delivered in a pleasing, elegant, and nervous style. That Mohammed, who was rude and illiterate, should compose a book, deservedly esteemed the standard of elegance among the Arabians, without Divine assistance, was considered as impossible among his followers, and therefore they believed the sublime composition to be the work of God, as the prophet informed them.

ALFRED THE GREAT.

THIS monarch was the youngest son of Ethelwolf, king of the West Saxons, and born at Wantage, Berks, in 849. On the death of his brother Ethelred, Alfred succeeded to the throne of England, 871, in his twenty-second year, at a time when his kingdom was a prey to domestic dissensions, and to the invasions of the Danes, whom he engaged at Wilton, but, after a hard conflict, was forced to retreat, and conclude a treaty on disadvantageous terms. The Danes soon violated their engagement, and renewed their hostility with such success, that, in 877, the king was under the necessity of laying aside the ensigns of royalty, and concealing himself in the cottage of one of his herdsman. He afterward retired to the island of Athelney, where he was joined by the queen and her children, and here spent many happy days in exile. Though the future began to brighten, and in anticipation he beheld himself once more the idol of his people at the summit of power, yet humiliation in all its native loveliness attempered his movements, and the genuine benevolence of a good man, was a part of his very nature. To the distressed he was ever a sympathizing friend. An incident which occurred while a resident of that fenny isle, will illustrate this. One day, while his friends were abroad in search of food, and his queen and children, and they only were with him, a knock at the gate attracted his attention. As was his custom when with his family, he sat reading the Scriptures or the annals of his country, but as he heard the suppliant voice of distress without, his sympathy was aroused, and he ordered the stranger to be brought in, and some food given him. Search was made, and all they found in store was a single loaf and a little wine. The king thought the wants of the mendicant more urgent than their own, and at the risk of a short allowance for himself, he divided his loaf with the poor sufferer. This characteristic incident forms the subject of the illustration on the opposite page.

While residing on the island of Athelney, Alfred received information that one of his chiefs had obtained a great victory over the Danes, and taken their magical standard. This victory determined Alfred at once to collect his strength and attack the enemy. He disguised himself as a harper, entered the Danish camp, and obtained a knowledge of the state of the enemy. After this, he directed his nobles to meet him at Selwood, with their vassals, which was done so secretly, that the Danes were surprised at Eddington, and totally routed. He now put his kingdom in a state of defence, increased his navy, and brought London into a flourishing state; but after a rest of some years, an immense number of Danish forces landed at Kent, and committed great ravages; they were, however, soon defeated by Alfred, who caused several of the leaders to be executed at Winchester. Thus he secured the peace of his dominions, and struck terror into his enemies, after fifty-six battles by sea and land, in all of which he was personally engaged. But the warlike exploits of Alfred formed, perhaps, the least of the services he rendered his country. He composed a body of statutes, instituted the trial by jury, and divided the kingdom into shires and hundreds; was so exact in his government, that robbery was unheard of, and valuable goods might be left on the highway. His great council, consisting of bishops, earls, aldermen, and thanes, was, by an express law, called together twice a year in London, for the better government of the realm. The state of learning in his time was so low, that, from the Thames to the Humber, scarcely a man could be found who understood the service of the church, or could translate a single sentence of Latin into English. To remedy this evil, he invited men of learning from all quarters, and placed them at the head of seminaries in various parts of his kingdom; and



Alfred the Great dividing his Loaf with a Pilgrim—from a Picturing by West.

if he was not the founder of the University of Oxford, it is certain he raised it to a reputation which it had never before enjoyed. Alfred wrote several works, and translated others from the Latin, particularly Orosius's "History of the Pagans," and Boëthius's "Consolations of Philosophy." He divided the twenty-four hours into three equal parts, one devoted to the service of God, another to public affairs, and the third to rest and refreshment; his revenue, also, was divided into two equal moieties, one dedicated to sacred, the other to civil uses. To Alfred, England is indebted for the foundation of her naval establishment, and he was the first who sent out ships to make the discovery of a northeast passage. To crown his great public character, Alfred is described as one of the most mild and amiable men in private life; of a temper serene and cheerful, affable, kind, and merciful, and not averse to society, or to innocent recreation; he was also personally well-favored, possessing a handsome and vigorous form, and a dignified and engaging aspect. His queen Elswitha, who was the daughter of the earl of Mercia, was worthy of such a husband; and surrounded with the pure affections of wife and children, the good monarch passed happier hours in the bosom of his family, than he did when encircled with all the pomp of power and regal splendor. In the year 901, at the ripe age of fifty-two, he was "gathered to his fathers," and if ever a whole nation wept, it was when the melancholy news sped over the land that Alfred the Great had departed.

CANUTE.

CANUTE or KNUD, surnamed the Great, succeeded his father Sweyn as king of Denmark, and afterward undertook an expedition against England. He attacked Edmund Ironside with such boldness and success, that the two rivals agreed to divide the country between them, and while Edmund was satisfied with the land at the south of the Thames, his opponent claimed the north as his own. When Edmund was murdered by Edric, 1017, Canute seized the whole kingdom, and endeavored to establish himself by the punishment of Edric and of the nobles, and by the laying of a heavy tax on the people. His reign, though severe, was impartial, and he regarded both nations equally as his subjects, and distributed justice without favor. He repressed the invasion of the Swedes and killed their king in battle. In his old age he made a pilgrimage to Rome. He died at Shaftsbury in 1035.

Canute showed himself superior to the flattery of his courtiers, and administered to them a severe rebuke, on the seashore at Southampton. It was at the height of his power, and when all things seemed to bend to his lordly will (so goes the story), that Canute, disgusted one day with the extravagant flatteries of his courtiers, determined to read them a practical lesson. He caused his throne to be placed on the verge of the sands on the seashore as the tide was rolling in with its resistless might; and, seating himself, he addressed the ocean, and said:—"Ocean! the land on which I sit is mine, and thou art a part of my dominion: therefore rise not—obey my commands, nor presume to wet the edge of my robe." He sat for some time as if expecting obedience, but the sea rolled on in its immutable course; succeeding waves broke nearer and nearer to his feet, till at length the skirts of his garment and his legs were bathed by the waters. Then, turning to his courtiers and captains, Canute said: "Confess ye now how frivolous and vain is the might of an earthly king compared to that Great Power who rules the elements, and can say unto the

ocean, 'Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther.'" The chroniclers conclude the apologue by adding, that he immediately took off his crown, and depositing it in the cathedral of Winchester, never wore it again. Under the title of "A Fact and an Imagination," this story has been simply but gracefully told by Wordsworth, and applied to the inculcation of a lofty sentiment and a great moral lesson. The following lines are an extract from this poem —

"The Danish Conqueror, on his royal chair,
 Mustering a face of haughty sovereignty,
 To aid a covert purpose, cried,—‘O ye
 Approaching waters of the deep, that share
 With this green isle my fortunes, come not where
 Your Master’s throne is set!’—Absurd decree!
 A mandate uttered to the foaming sea
 Is to its motion less than wanton air.
 —Then Canute, rising from the invaded throne,
 Said to his servile courtiers, ‘Poor the reach,
 The undisguised extent, of mortal sway!
 He only is a king, and he alone
 Deserves the name (this truth the billows preach),
 Whose everlasting laws, sea, earth, and heaven, obey.’”



Canute reproving his Courtiers.



PETER THE HERMIT.

TOWARD the end of the eleventh century, during the pontificate of Urban II., a pilgrim returned from the Holy Land, and with peculiar eloquence, excited such zeal against the oppressing rulers of Palestine, that, with one accord, the people declared their wish and willingness to leave the furrow and the mart, and bear the cross and sword against the infidel possessors of the sepulchre of Jesus. This man was Peter the Hermit, so called.

He was a native of Amiens, in France, and was early trained to the duties of a soldier, but when more advanced, he became a priest. After living the life of a hermit for some time, and showing in his conduct, such as abstaining from flesh and bread, and making benefactions to his followers, that he possessed the most rigid faith and piety, he became desirous of visiting Jerusalem. He accomplished his journey in safety, paid his piece of gold at the gate of the city, and took up lodgings with a pious Christian within. Every step he took through Palestine added fresh vigor to his zeal and indignation, for his eyes witnessed more than his ears had heard of the oppressions of his fellow-pilgrims. He visited the various objects of his devotion, and then sought and obtained an audience with Simeon, the then patriarch of Jerusalem. This man was a Greek, possessed of great talents and moral worth, and cautious in his intercourse with the pilgrims. But so much did he confide in the good sense and fidelity of Peter, that he unfolded his whole heart to him, and on his departure intrusted him with a paper bearing his seal, which, if it had been taken by the Turks, would have occasioned the death of not only the patriarch, but probably the massacre of every Christian in Palestine. This letter was a

letter from the patriarch to the pope, and princes of Europe, written at the suggestion of Peter, in which he pictured the miseries of the pilgrims, and prayed for aid against the united swords of Turk and Saracen. Peter promised to see each prince and confer with him in person, and thus freighted with what he deemed a precious and efficacious document, he returned to Italy, and hastened to the feet of the pope. Embroiled with Philip I. of France, whom Gregory and the reigning pontiff (Urban II.) had excommunicated, for his adulterous intercourse with Bertha, the pope was obliged to leave Rome, and when Peter returned, that prelate had taken refuge with a powerful noble, Robert Guiscard of Calabria. There the hermit found him, and with all his native eloquence and zeal, and the coöperation of the letter of the patriarch, he laid before the pontiff the miseries and wants of the Christians of the East, and the importance of making an effort for the conquest of the Holy Land. The pope readily acquiesced, Robert furnished his aid, and his son, Boemond, prince of Tarentum, abandoned his schemes of conquest in Greece, and expressed his willingness to gird on his sword to fight the Saracens.

With the pope's sanction, Peter went forward to preach the crusade throughout all the Christian empires of Europe, and wherever he went, from province to province, he spread the cry of "Death to the Saracen! Deliverance to Jerusalem!" Thus the eloquence of a single individual, operating upon the fiery spirit of chivalry, aroused all Europe to gird on the steel, and declare their willingness to fight what the sincere believed to be the battles of the Lord. Leaders presented themselves in various quarters, and thousands flocked to their respective standards. The first that commenced his march eastward, with anything like a respectable number of followers, was a poor knight and noble, rich in military renown, but so deficient in purse, that he was generally known by the appellation of Walter the Penniless. While Peter the Hermit was collecting a vast multitude on the confines of Hungary, Walter, with about thirty thousand, led the way as a vanguard of the main army, toward Constantinople. But this detachment, like the main body under Peter, were anything but soldiers. They were the very scum of Europe; the ruined in fortune, the dissolute and the abandoned, and with few exceptions they could be called neither soldiers nor Christians, and a more dangerous engine of destruction was never put in motion. But Walter, with consummate skill, kept them subordinate till they reached Semlin in Hungary, where the arms and crosses of a few vanquished stragglers were seen upon the walls. The multitude cried aloud for vengeance, but Walter refused to listen, and urged them forward. The people looked upon the rabble host with suspicion, for in this section the spirit of chivalry was weak. They shut their cities against them, refused supplies, and famine drove the crusaders to desperation. They attacked flocks and herds, and in turn they were attacked by the Bulgarians, and many killed. But after infinite toils, and vexations, and numerical losses, Walter reached Constantinople, and there awaited the arrival of Peter.

When the host of Peter, a multitude less orderly if possible than those of Walter, reached Semlin, the arms and crosses of their brethren excited their direst fury, and they assaulted and took the town, and gave free scope to their barbarous feelings and dark passions. The king of Hungary collected a force to punish the invaders, but Peter managed to escape with all his heterogeneous army of two hundred thousand souls. They marched on quietly, and passed Nissa, where the duke of Bulgaria had fortified himself in expectation of an attack from the crusaders. But some stragglers having had a quarrel with Bulgarian merchants, set fire to some mills. This exasperated the people, and a large force sallied out of the city, destroyed great numbers of the crusaders, and captured a vast amount of their women and children and baggage. Peter at once turned back, and by mild measures, effected a reconciliation, and again

set forward. But a thousand unruly men, thinking they saw an opportunity to take the town, attacked it. This supposed breach of faith on the part of Peter, enraged the duke and his people, and a general battle ensued. The crusaders were destroyed or dispersed in all directions, and Peter was obliged to flee alone to the mountains for refuge. After wandering for a long time, worn and disheartened, he met upon the crest of one of the ranges of the Balkin a few of his best knights, with about five hundred men. Horns were sounded in all directions, and other means employed to collect the refugees, and at sunset about seven thousand were again under the command of the hermit. With these he started for Constantinople, and on his way, other bands, remnants of his late army, joined him. At Philipopoli he met deputies from Alexius, the emperor of Constantinople, and the eloquence with which Peter addressed the people, called forth their most generous sympathies, and ample supplies of provisions and clothing were afforded the crusaders.

But the wild spirit of misrule, kept alive by the grovelling passions which moved the great majority of this motley host, could not long be kept quiet in inaction, and they had not long been the beneficiaries of the kindness of the emperor, before their unparalleled lusts broke down every barrier of gratitude and good feeling, and they commenced depredations upon their generous friends. They set fire to public buildings, prostrated palaces and fanes, stripped the lead from church roofs and sold it to the Greeks, from whom they had stolen it, and in many instances sacrificed the lives of those who offered resistance to their outrages.

Alarmed and incensed by such ungrateful conduct, the emperor, Alexius, at once formed a pretence for their removal from his dominions. He supplied them with arms and provisions, and as speedily as possible hurried them across the Bosphorus. Walter, with his Frenchmen, tarried upon the shore, waiting for reinforcements, but the Lombards and Italians, whom he met at Constantinople, pushed forward to Xerigord under a leader call Rinaldo. Disgusted with the barbarous atrocities committed by the crusaders, Peter in despair returned to Constantinople. The fortress of Xerigord fell into the possession of the host of Rinaldo, but being illy supplied with water, and surrounded by a foe, they were soon obliged to think of surrendering. Hearing of their situation, Walter hurried to the rescue, which he effected, and all marched onward toward Nice. Before reaching it they were attacked by the Turks. Walter was killed, and not above three thousand Christians made good their escape to Civitot, where they were soon besieged. Peter, hearing of these disasters, fell upon his knees before the emperor and implored his aid in rescuing the few remaining crusaders. His prayer was granted, and Alexius brought them safely to Constantinople. He at once purchased their arms, and advised their immediate return home. Thus ended the expedition of Peter the Hermit.

Peter subsequently, with a few of his former followers, joined the crusade under Godfrey of Bouillon, with Boemond, prince of Tarentum, and Tancred, his kinsman, who is represented as one of the noblest of all the knights in the armies of the crusades. Barons and knights were numerous in Godfrey's train. In advancing through Asia, the siege of Antioch delayed their progress, and Peter would have abandoned the hopeless enterprise had he not been bound by an oath by Tancred to share the dangers of the crusade. At the conquest of the Holy Land, and in the siege of Jerusalem 1099, Peter behaved with great valor, and for his services was appointed vicar-general of Palestine. He afterward returned to Europe, and died in the year 1115, at the abbey of Noirmoutier, of which he was the founder.



RICHARD CŒUR DE LION.

RICHARD I., surnamed Cœur de Lion, was born in the year 1157, and succeeded his father, Henry II., on the throne of England, in 1189. The beginning of his reign was tarnished by the massacre of the Jews, and by the plunder of their property, not only in London, where their appearance at the coronation had excited the indignation of the populace, but at York and other places. In 1190, Richard, instead of establishing order and tranquillity in his dominions, set sail with Philip Augustus of France for the Holy Land. Though, however, dissension between these monarchs partly defeated the purpose of the enterprise, and caused the return of Philip to France, Richard led his army against the infidels, defeated Saladin in a battle at Cæsarea, and then concluding a truce with him, embarked for Europe. In his return he was shipwrecked on the Venetian shores, and as he passed in disguise through Germany, he was seized by Leopold, duke of Austria, and delivered to the emperor Henry VI. and cruelly doomed to the horrors of captivity. His retreat was discovered by the fidelity of his friend Blondel, and by the eager loyalty of his subjects, and for a large ransom he was restored to liberty, and landed at Sandwich, in 1194. To give greater dignity to his return, he was crowned a second time, and soon after marched against Philip Augustus, who had not only excited John against his absent brother, but had seized part of his dominions in Normandy. Though a peace was made in 1196, Richard three years after renewed the war, and, while besieging Chalus in the Limousin, he received a mortal wound from an arrow. He died 6th April, 1199, aged forty-two.

Though brave, Richard Cœur de Lion was haughty and possessed an inordinate thirst for gain. He commanded just before his death that his body should be carried to Fontevault, and buried at the feet of his father Henry II. His heart he bequeathed to the city of Rouen.



ZINGHIS KHAN.

ZINGHIS KHAN, whose original name was Temudgin, and who was one of the greatest conquerers that has ever appeared on the face of the earth either in ancient or modern times, was born in 1163. He was chief of one of the numerous hordes of Moguls that inhabited the countries to the north of the great wall in China, extending from Eastern Tartary to Bukharia. They were a wandering people, who had no settled place of abode, but formed their cities of tents, which they set up where they pleased, and carried away with them whenever they chose to change their locality. Every tribe had its own chief, but there was one superior to the rest, who was called the great khan, and to him the lesser chiefs paid homage and tribute. Some of them were also tributary to the two great Tartar empires of the Khitan and the Kin—the former extending over Western Tartary to the shores of the Caspian sea, and containing several great cities, of which Cashgar was the capital; the latter comprising the whole of Eastern Tartary, with the north of China, and to this empire the particular horde of Moguls of which Temudgin was the chief, had long been accustomed to pay tribute.

This celebrated warrior was gifted by nature with a mind of vast capacity, which served to render him more terrible to the rest of mankind, since it made him ambitious, and led him to plan and execute the widely-extended schemes of conquest that have rendered his name distinguished in history, and whose fame rivals that of Alexander of Macedon. He had been accustomed to war from his earliest youth, for his father had died while he was yet but a boy, and several of his subject hordes, not choosing to acknowledge the authority of so inexperienced a leader, deserted the young chieftain to join others, so that he had but a very small band of warriors when he first set out on his career of conquest. Being successful, however, in several expeditions, the number of his subjects was increased, and he married the daughter of the great khan. The khan and his son-in-law did not remain on friendly terms, but were frequently at war with each other, till the death of the former. Temudgin then invaded the territories of his diseased father-in-law, and conquered, one by one, many of the Mogul tribes, whose princes did him homage giving him the title of Zinghis Khan, signifying Most Great Emperor.

Such was the rise of this renowned chief, who began his reign as emperor of the Moguls by giving a new code of laws to his subjects, which he did with a view to keep peace among them, and make them formidable to other nations. The men belonging to the Mogul tribes were prohibited from pursuing any occupations but those of war and the chase, all servile employments being left to slaves and strangers; the regulations for hunting, on which the subsistence of these rude nations chiefly depended, were strictly defined; and death was made the penalty for murder as well as for the theft of a horse or an ox, the two most valuable articles of Tartar property. With regard to religion, the barbarian prince granted universal toleration; nor did he suffer his people to interfere with each other on that point, but all were permitted to worship in their own way, to enjoy equal rights, and to receive equal protection from the laws, whether they were heathens, Jews, Mohammedans, or Christians, for Zinghis numbered among his subjects people of almost every different persuasion. His next movement was the invasion of China. The descriptions that are given of the dreadful cruelties of the invader are probably very much exaggerated; but the sufferings of the people must have been extremely great, as the Tartar mode of warfare was barbarous in the highest degree, and it was one of the maxims of Zinghis never to make peace till after conquest.

It is said that in the first expedition he burnt down as many as ninety cities in the north of China, put to the sword many thousands of the inhabitants, and carried away vast numbers of both sexes into slavery. It is needless to dwell on the horrors of these barbarous wars; suffice it to say, that Zinghis was in the end completely victorious, and took absolute possession of the northern part of the country, while the king of the Kin was obliged to retreat farther toward the south.

The conqueror now turned his eyes toward other regions, and having appointed governors to preside over the provinces he had won, he left a part of his armies to defend them, and departed with a numerous host, to spread war and desolation throughout the countries of Western Asia, the greater portion of which was divided into small sovereignties, under the dominion of the Turkish sultana of the race of Seljook, who had established a powerful empire on the ruins of that of the Arabian califs, but were now much weakened in consequence of their wars with the European crusaders. It is not therefore surprising that they should be unable to resist so powerful an enemy as Zinghis Khan, who first subdued all the states around the Caspian sea, and then proceeded southward with equal success, through Persia and Arabia, to the shores of the Indus. All the rich and populous provinces of Chorassan, Carizme, and Transoxiana, fell under the power of the Moguls, who plundered them, and sold great numbers of their Turkish prisoners for slaves to the Syrians and Egyptians.

Zinghis, on his way back to China, brought under subjection several of the kingdoms of Tartary that had either revolted from his authority or had not yet been subdued; but he did not live to complete the conquest to the Chinese empire, as death put an end to his destructive career soon after his arrival in Cathay, in the year 1227, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. He left four sons, of whom the third, Octai, with the unanimous consent of his brothers, succeeded as great khan of the Moguls and Tartars, and was styled emperor of China, while the others were content to hold states dependent on him. Octai, in pursuance of the dying commands of his father, carried on the war against the Kin, whose last monarch, after a long and desperate resistance, killed himself in despair, and the remnant of that once powerful nation fled to their native deserts, where they founded the tribe of the Mantchows, by whom the Chinese empire was conquered at a later period, and whose princes still occupy the throne of China.

WILLIAM TELL.

WILLIAM TELL, a renowned champion in the cause of Swiss liberty, was born about the year 1275. He was a native of Burglen, in the canton of Uri. He was distinguished by his skill in archery, his strength, and courage. The tyrannical despotism of the Austrian governor of Switzerland, Herman Gesler, was intolerable; he pushed his insolence so far, as to require the Swiss to uncover their heads before his hat (as an emblem of his sovereignty); and condemned Tell, who refused to comply with this mandate, to shoot an apple from the head of his own son. Tell was successful in his attempt, but confessed that a second arrow, which he bore about his person, was intended, in case he had failed, for the punishment of the tyrant, and was therefore retained prisoner. While he was crossing the lake of the Four Cantons, or lake of Lucerne, in the same boat with Gesler, a violent storm threatened the destruction of the skiff. Tell, as the most vigorous and skilful helmsman, was set free; and he conducted the boat successfully to the shore, but seized the opportunity to spring upon a rock, pushing off the barque. He had fortunately taken his bow with him; and when the governor finally escaped the storm, and reached the shore, Tell shot him dead on the road to Kussnacht. This event was a signal for a general rising, and a most obstinate war between the Swiss and the Austrians, which was not brought to a close until 1499. Tell is supposed to have lost his life during an inundation at Burglen, in 1350. His descendants became extinct in the male line in 1684, and in the female in 1720.

The memorable event above described happened on November 7, 1307; and the citizens having chosen for their leaders three gentlemen of approved courage and abilities, namely, Werner of Schwitz, Walter Furst of Uri, and Arnold Melchthal of Underwalden, they secretly agreed together that they should surprise and demolish the castles in which the imperial governors resided. This resolution being effected, these three places joined again in a league for ten years, which gave birth to the Helvetian confederacy.

This almost bloodless revolution had a powerful influence upon the future destiny of Switzerland, and laid the foundation for that compact of freedom which has withstood the successive earthquake shocks of revolutions that for five hundred years have repeatedly convulsed Europe to its very centre. And to every Schwitzer the name of William Tell is as familiar and dear, as is the memory of Washington to us. He left behind him a name that grows brighter as the principles of civil liberty are more widely diffused; and at Kussnacht near the spot where Gesler fell by his hand, piety and patriotism have erected a chapel to his memory.





PETRARCH.

FRANCESCO PETRARCH or PETRARCA, one of the most celebrated Italian poets, was born at Arezzo, in 1304. On account of the dissensions which raged in his native country, his father removed with him to Avignon, and afterward to Carpentras, where Petrarch received his education, which was completed at Montpellier and Bologna. He was intended for the law, but Cicero and Virgil had more charms for him than Justinian. On the death of his parents he enrolled himself in the clerical order, but not being much confined by the duties of his several benefices, he followed the impulse of his genius, which led him to literary pursuits. Having brought to life Cicero's "*Epistolæ Familiares*," and formed a collection of manuscripts with great labor, one of the first places is due to him among the restorers of ancient literature. Having settled at Avignon, he became inspired with a lasting passion for the beautiful Laura de Noves; but though he poured forth his tributary odes and sonnets to her charms, he failed to gain the object of his affections. After having travelled in the vain hope of moderating his love, he settled at Vacluse, a romantic spot, where he wrote some of his finest works. His literary reputation attracted the regard of princes; he was invited to Paris, to Naples, and to Rome; and received the laureate crown in the latter city 1341; the title and prerogatives of poet-laureate were revived, after a lapse of thirteen hundred years. In 1348 his feelings were deeply wounded by the death of Laura, who appears to have fallen a sacrifice to the pestilence, then raging throughout Europe, and which also deprived him of his great patron, Cardinal Colonna. He survived the idol of his soul, however, nearly thirty years; during all which period he was admired and honored by his countrymen. Petrarch was undoubtedly one of the most memorable characters of his age and nation; and although his countrymen may have estimated his genius at too high a rate, he merits the applause and admiration of posterity. He died near Padua, in 1374.



JOHN WICKLIFFE.

JOHN WICKLIFFE, the morning-star of the Reformation, and the noble pioneer of Luther, was born at Wickliffe, in Yorkshire, England, about 1324. The year of his birth is not recorded, nor is much known respecting his parentage. He was educated at Queen's college, and afterward at Merton, and in 1361 raised to the mastership of Baliol college. In 1365 he was made, by the scholars, head of Canterbury hall, just founded at Oxford by Archbishop Islip, but his elevation was opposed by the monks, and Langham the next primate, and the pope to whom the dispute was referred, displaced him and his secular associates. Thus disgraced by violence he retired to his living at Lutterworth in Leicestershire, meditating revenge against the authors of his unjust privation. In the works of Marsilius of Padua, and other bold writers, he found ample room to indulge his opposition, and well aware of the popularity of attacking a foreign power, which overawed the throne, and submitted the industry and the revenues of the kingdom to its own avaricious views, he loudly inveighed against the errors and encroachments of the Romish church.

In 1374, Edward III. despatched an embassy to Avignon to remonstrate on these subjects with the pope, Gregory XI., and procure the relinquishment of his pretensions. The bishop of Bangor and Wickliffe were at the head of the negotiators; but they failed to accomplish any important result. Wickliffe, however, was enabled to obtain a clearer insight into the pontifical machinery, and discover the secret springs which moved it. His sovereign rewarded his services at the Papal court by some church preferments. After this period, his anti-papal opinions were still more boldly declared, and he became more and more distinguished as an advocate for the reformation of the church. His writings alarmed the clergy, and a council was assembled at Lambeth, by Archbishop Sudbury, 1377, and Wickliffe summoned to give an account of his doctrines. He appeared before it, accompanied by the duke of Lancaster, then in power, and he made so able a defence, that he was dismissed without condemnation. His acquittal, however, displeased the pope, Gregory XI., who directed his emissaries to seize the offending heretic, or if he were protected by the great and powerful of the kingdom, to cite him to Rome, to answer in person before the sovereign pontiff. In consequence of this a second council assembled at Lambeth, and the nineteen propositions which the pope had declared heretical, were so ably vindicated by the eloquence of the undaunted reformer, that his judges, afraid of offending the nobles, or of exciting a commotion among the people, who loudly supported the cause of their champion, permitted him to depart in safety, and enjoined him silence in matters of religion and of controversy. Undismayed by the power of his enemies, Wickliffe continued to preach his doctrines, which were now more universally spread, and a third council, therefore, assembled under Courmay the primate, 1382, and twenty-four propositions of the reformer were condemned as heretical, and fourteen as erroneous. The severity of the church was, at the suggestion of the pope, and the concurrence of the weak Richard II., directed with effect against the supporters of the new heresy; but while some of his followers suffered punishment for their adherence to his principles, Wickliffe unhappily died at Lutterworth, in 1384, at a time when nothing was wanting to emancipate the English nation from the tyranny of Rome, but the boldness, perseverance, and eloquence of a popular leader. Of the several works which he wrote, his *Triologus* is almost the only one which has been printed. The noble struggle which Wickliffe had made against the gigantic power of Rome was almost forgotten after his death, till Martin Luther arose to follow his steps, and to establish his doctrines on a foundation which will last till the world is no more. The memory of Wickliffe was branded with ignominy by order of the pope and the decree of the council of Constance, whose cruelties toward John of Huss, and Jerome of Prague are so well known; the illustrious reformer was declared to have died an obstinate heretic, and his bones were therefore dug up from holy ground, and contemptuously thrown into the river. The first translation of the Bible into English was made by him about 1380, which remained until recently only in manuscript.

Wickliffe may justly be regarded as one of the brightest ornaments of his country, and as one of those luminaries which Providence raises up to enlighten and bless mankind. To this intuitive genius, Christendom is probably more indebted than to any single name in the list of reformers. In the language of another: "He opened the gates of darkness, and let in, not a feeble, glimmering ray, but such an effulgence of light as was never after obscured. He not only loosened prejudices, but advanced clear, incontestable truths, which, having once obtained foothold, still kept their ground, and even in an age of reformation wanted but small amendment."

TAMERLANE.

TAMERLANE, or TIMOUR, one of the most celebrated of the oriental conquerors, was born in 1325, in Sebzar, a village forty miles south of Samarcand, in the kingdom anciently known, at different periods, by the names of Transoxiana and Maver-ul-nere, now called Bokhara, where his ancestors, who possessed the rank of commander of a toman of horse, enjoyed considerable local influence. The courage and address he exhibited in repelling the continual inroads of the Tartars upon his native country raised him at last so highly in its estimation, that he became, at the age of thirty-four, after experiencing severe reverses and enduring great personal hardships, sovereign of the kingdoms of Zagatay, which includes Cabul as well as Bokhara. His conquests had extended all over Persia in Northern Tartary, and as far as the arctic circle, when he directed his attention to India.

In March, 1398, he set out at the head of his army from Samarcand, and soon reached the Hindu Coosh, the great chain of mountains, which divides India from Cabul, and Bokhara. Here his difficulties began, nature presenting all but insuperable obstacles in the precipitous and desolate mountains that he had to cross. And when, through an indomitable energy, these natural obstacles were overcome, his farther progress was impeded by the natives, who defended themselves vigorously for three days, with great obstinacy and slaughter to both parties, before they were overpowered.

Tamerlane crossed the Indus on a bridge of boats, and descended the Jhelum, as far as the confluence with the Chenab where were the fort and town of Toolumbra. Thence, he sent forward reinforcements to relieve his grandson Jehanghir, who was shut up in Moultan, by the Indians, and reduced to great distress. He now marched direct toward Delhi, the capital, leaving behind him the melancholy traces of his progress, smoking ruins, desolated fields, and deserted villages. Mahmud, the young king of Delhi, fought a battle with the Moguls near that city, but being defeated, fled to Guzerat, when the citizens immediately surrendered, and Tamerlane was proclaimed emperor of India; but the submission of the people of Delhi did not save them from slavery, ruin, or death, for the fierce barbarian soldiers broke into the houses in search of plunder, and seized many of the women and children, whom they could always sell for slaves. These outrages being resisted led to a general massacre, and the streets of Delhi presented a frightful picture of Mogul warfare.

From Delhi, Tamerlane marched toward the upper Ganges, but while he was engaged in this expedition Bagdad, one of his conquered cities, revolted, on which he hastened back, delivered the place up to pillage, and put to death over eighty thousand persons. He also invaded Syria, and took Damascus. In this career of conquest the Greek emperor and some inferior princes implored his assistance against Bajazet, emperor of the Turks, whom he marched against, and after a battle of three days the Turkish emperor was defeated and taken prisoner. Tamerlane fixed the seat of his vast empire at Samarcand, where he received the homage of numerous sovereigns, and among the rest the ambassadors of the emperor Manuel Paleologus and Henry III., king of Castile. He died in 1405. Tamerlane conducted his government alone and without favorites, but was in the highest degree fierce and fanatical in his religion; and, although no conquests were ever attended with greater cruelty, devastation, and waste of human life, he affected the title of benefactor to mankind. Happily, his ambition was too gigantic for its consequences to last, and his dominions rapidly became divided as before.



Portrait of Tamerlane.—From a miniature painted in India.



GUTTEMBERG, FAUST, AND SCHÖEFFER.

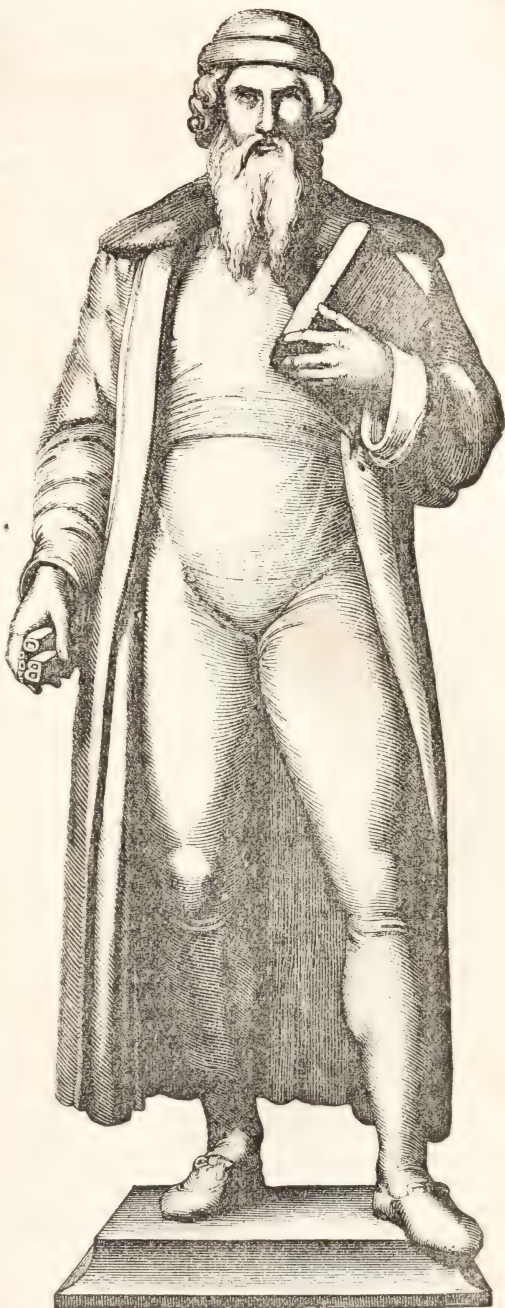
To the three celebrated men, whose portraits are contained in the above engraving, it is generally acknowledged the world is principally indebted for the discovery of the art of printing. This invention is also claimed for Laurentius Koster, of Haarlem, but the preponderance of evidence is against his claim. We will briefly mention the few incidents which have come down to us in the lives of these men to whom their posterity is so much indebted.

JOHN GUTTEMBERG, or Geinsfleisch, the reputed inventor of printing, was born at Mentz, in Germany, of noble and wealthy parents, about the year 1400. In 1424, he took up his residence at Strasburgh, as a merchant; but from a deed of accommodation between himself and the nobles and burghers of Mentz, in 1430, it is evident that he returned to his native place. Schœpflin asserts that he was a wealthy man in that city in 1434. Scriverius informs us that he resided at Strasburgh, from 1436 to 1444, during which period he made several ineffectual attempts to gain a perfect knowledge of the art of printing; not succeeding, he quitted Strasburgh, and returned to Mentz, where he opened his mind fully to JOHN FAUST, a goldsmith, and prevailed on him to advance large sums, in order to make more complete trials of the art. Between 1450, and 1455, the celebrated bible of 637 leaves, the first important specimen of printing, was executed between Guttenberg and Faust. There is a copy of it upon vellum, in the royal library at Berlin; five copies are also known upon paper. It is a singular circumstance, and one that has justly excited the surprise of bibliographers, that no work has been discovered with Guttenberg's name upon it. In 1465, he was honored by Archbishop Adolphus with a mark of distinction, to which his genius and his labor entitled him. He was admitted among the nobility of his court, allowed to wear the dress peculiar to that order, and had a pension, together with several privileges and exemptions conferred upon him. Guttenberg died in February, 1468, and was interred in the church of Recollets, at Mentz. The statue of Guttenberg, by Thorwaldsdén, represented on the opposite page, was erected at Mentz, in 1837.

The partnership before alluded to, of Guttenberg and Faust, was dissolved in 1455, and Faust continued the business alone. The types, on which the printing had been thus far executed, had been each separately engraved on wood or metal, a tedious and costly method. But PETER SCHÖEFFER, of Gernsheim, a journeyman in the employ of Faust, discovered the method

of cutting the characters in a matrix or mould, which admitted the more rapid and easy process of casting the letters. He privately cut matrices for the whole alphabet; and when he showed Faust the letters cast in them, his employer was so pleased with the invention that he gave him his daughter Christina in marriage, and made him a partner in his business. The types as first cast by Schœffer proved too soft to support the force of the impression; but he soon found a method of remedying this defect, by mixing the metal with a substance which hardened it. This improvement of Schœffer was the consummation of the invention of the art of printing; and many date the commencement of this important era from this period.

In 1452, Faust carried a number of bibles to Paris, and disposed of them as manuscripts (the invention of printing having been thus far kept a profound secret). At first he sold them at the high price of six hundred crowns, the sum usually obtained by the scribes. Faust afterward lowered his price to sixty crowns, which created universal astonishment; but when he produced them according to the demand, and even reduced the price to thirty, all Paris became agitated. Information was given against him as a magician; his lodgings were searched, a great number of bibles were found and seized; the red ink with which they were embellished was said to be his blood, and it was adjudged that he was in league with the devil. He was cast into prison, and would probably have been put to death, had he not divulged the discovery of the art. This circumstance gave rise to the tradition of "The Devil and Dr. Faustus." It is supposed Faust died of the plague, at Paris, in 1466. Schœffer was succeeded in business by his son in 1490, and died in 1502.



The Statue of Guttenberg, by Thorwaldsdén, at Mentz.

JOAN OF ARC

JOAN OF ARC, called also the Maid of Orleans, was one of the most celebrated heroines in history. She was born of poor parents, at Domremi, a village on the borders of Lorraine, in 1402; and became a servant at an inn, where she attended the horses, drove the cattle to pasture, and was employed in other services similar to what a laboring man would perform in this country. At this time the affairs of France were in a deplorable state, and the city of Orleans was so closely besieged by the duke of Bedford, that its fall appeared inevitable. In this exigency Joan (who had ever been of a religious and very imaginative turn of mind) believed that she had received a commission from Heaven to expel the invaders. On being introduced to the king, Charles VII., she offered to raise the siege of Orleans, and conducted his majesty to Rheims to be crowned and anointed; at the same time demanding for herself a particular sword, which was in the church of St. Catharine. After a little hesitation her request was complied with; and while the French soldiers were elated by having an inspired leader, the English were as much dismayed. From this period, she appears the finest character in the history of the middle ages of France. In a male dress, armed *cap-à-pie*, she bore the sword and the sacred banner, as the signal of victory, at the head of the army. Still no unfeminine cruelty ever stained her conduct. She was wounded several times herself, but never killed any one, or shed any blood with her own hand. The general belief of her elevated mission, of which she herself was piously persuaded, produced the most extraordinary effects. Resolute, chivalrous, pious, and brave, looking to one single aim, she was skilfully employed by the generals to animate the army, while they did not implicitly follow her counsels. The first enterprise was successful. With ten thousand men, under the command of St. Severre, Dunois, and La Hire, she marched from Blois, and, on April 29th, 1429, entered Orleans with supplies. By bold sallies to which she animated the besieged, the English were forced from their intrenchments, and Suffolk abandoned the siege. Joan entered Orleans in triumph, and the coronation at Rheims followed; after which Charles caused a medal to be struck in honor of the heroine, and ennobled her family. The town of Domremi also, where she was born, was exempted from all imposts for ever. After the coronation, Joan declared that her mission was at an end, and that she should now retire to private life; but the French commandant Dunois, who thought she might still prove serviceable, induced her to throw herself into Compeigne, then besieged by the duke of Burgundy, and the earls of Arundel and Suffolk. Here, after performing prodigies of valor, she was taken prisoner in a sally; and, after four months imprisonment, was cruelly condemned by the English to be burnt alive, on the charge of sorcery. She resolutely defended herself from the absurd accusation, and was carried to the stake, where with dauntless courage she met her disastrous fate, on the 20th of May, 1431.

Thus died this extraordinary maiden, at the early age of twenty-nine years, to whom, Hume justly observed, "the more liberal and generous superstitions of the ancients would have erected altars." This last tragedy in the drama of her wonderful career, is an eternal stigma, not only upon the two nations immediately concerned, but upon the age in which she lived; and the actors in the scene, however much they may be robed in sacerdotal dignity and reverence, should receive the execrations of the good in all ages, as fit brethren for the Neros and Caligulas of ancient Rome.

Twenty years afterward her mother demanded and obtained a reversal of her sentence, and by the bishop of Paris her character was fully cleared from every imputation of guilt of the crimes of which she was accused.



Joan of Arc before her Accusers.

MOHAMMED II.

MOHAMMED II., the Turkish emperor, surnamed "the Great" and "the Victorious," was born at Adrianople, in the year 1430, and was first called to the Othman throne in the thirteenth year of his age, by the voluntary abdication of his father, Amurath II. But in the year following (1444), the welfare of the empire, which was menaced by the king of Hungary, recalled Amurath to the head of the army and of the government until the danger was over-past, when he again withdrew from public life. Four months after this second abdication, a revolt of the janizaries, and the warlike preparations of Christian princes, apprized Amurath that the reins of empire had been confided to hands not yet strong enough to guide them. Controlling, therefore, his desire for retirement, he resumed the sovereign power, and retained it until his death in 1451. On both these occasions Mohammed resigned the supreme authority into his father's hands without a murmur; but he never forgave the ministers by whom the measure had been advised.

He commenced his new reign by some acts of cruelty in the interior of the seraglio. Under the pretext of assuring his own repose and that of the empire, he caused to be destroyed his young brother, whom Amurath, in his last moments, had earnestly recommended to his kindness and protection; and then, to appease the cries and the despair of the poor child's mother, he delivered up to her vengeance the person by whom his sanguinary order had been executed. The limits to which we must confine this sketch prevents our tracing the progress of this monarch in that career of conquest which commenced very soon after his accession to the throne, and in which he is flatteringly described as having won two empires, twelve kingdoms, and upward of two hundred cities, including Constantinople, the capital of the Christian empire in the East. We spare our readers, therefore, a detail of the victories which established his dominion from the Euphrates to the Adriatic, as well as the various checks which his arms received from Hunniades and Scanderbeg,—from the knights of Rhodes and from the Persian king, in an expedition against whom he died, in the year 1481, being the fifty-first of his age; and at a time when he had filled Europe with new consternation by the recent siege and sack of Otranto in Naples, and the threatened subjection of Italy and Rome to his power. He certainly established a claim to a place not the lowest among those whom it is the custom to call "Great." When dying, he directed the words "I would have taken Rhodes, and conquered Italy," to be engraved on his tomb, probably in order to stimulate his successors to fulfil his intentions.

In characterizing this celebrated prince, we shall adopt, with some modifications, the statement of Gibbon. Under the tuition of the skilful masters provided by his father, Mohammed advanced with an early and rapid progress in the paths of knowledge; and besides his native tongue it is affirmed that he spoke or understood five languages,—the Arabic, Persian, Hebrew, Latin, and Greek. With geography and history he was well acquainted; and the lives of the heroes of the East, and perhaps of the West, excited his emulation. His skill in astrology is excused by the folly of his time and people, and implies some acquaintance with mathematical science; while his taste for the arts is indicated by his liberal invitation and reward of the painters of Italy. His sobriety is attested by the silence of the Turkish historians, who accuse only three of their sultans of the vice of drunkenness; and it is related that he cultivated his gardens with his own hands, and sold part of the produce to purchase the other articles required for his table. The portrait of Mohammed II. on the opposite page, is from a drawing taken from life, by Gentile Bellini, an eminent painter of the fifteenth century.



Mohammed II.—From a Drawing by Gentile Bellini.



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

THE territory of Genoa had the honor of giving birth to this greatest of discoverers ; and the traveller in Italy is still gratified by beholding at the little village of Cocolletto the humble mansion, where, in a narrow room in the rear, looking out upon the deep-blue Mediterranean, and over which the troubled sea often throws its spray, CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, called by the Spaniards COLON, was born about 1435. He seems to have had an early attachment to sea affairs ; he studied navigation with the utmost industry, and supported himself by making charts for the sea-service. He had the universal character of a sober, temperate, and devout man ; he was a good mathematician, and had, in other respects, a tolerable share of learning.

The fame of the Portuguese in naval affairs having drawn him to Lisbon, he there settled, carried on a trade to the coast of Guinea, and at length married a woman of considerable fortune.

The reasons which probably determined Columbus to attempt the discovery of America, were the following : he had observed, when at the Cape de Verd islands, that at a particular season the wind always blew from the west, which he thought was occasioned by a large tract of land lying that way ; and he thought that the spherical figure of the earth demanded that the land on the one side should be balanced by an equal quantity on the other.

He flattered himself that, by sailing west, he should find a nearer passage to the Indies than that which the Portuguese hoped to discover, by sailing round the coast of Africa, of a great part of which they had already made themselves masters. When he was fully convinced of the possibility of carrying his scheme into execution, he proposed it to the state of Genoa as early as the

year 1484; but they having rejected it, he applied in the year 1485 to John II., king of Portugal, in whose dominions he had now resided some years, and commissioners were appointed to treat with him—who, having artfully drawn his secret from him, advised the king to fit out a ship to try the practicability of the plan, and to rob Columbus of the honor and advantage of it; but the design failed: and when the king would have treated with Columbus a second time, his indignation at the treatment he had received determined him to apply elsewhere; and that very year he sent his brother Bartholomew with proposals to Henry VII., king of England, while he himself proceeded to Spain, to offer his services to Ferdinand and Isabella.

Bartholomew had the misfortune to fall into the hands of pirates, who, stripping him of all he had, he arrived in England in a very miserable condition, where he was taken ill of a fever, and reduced to great distress. On his recovery, he applied himself with great industry to the making and selling of maps and charts, by which he at length, in the year 1488, put himself into a proper equipage to appear before the king (Henry VII.), with whom he entered into an agreement, in the name and on the behalf of his brother.

When Christopher Columbus arrived in Spain, he communicated his plan to Martin Alonzo Pinzon, a celebrated pilot, who saw the force of his arguments and readily agreed to go with him, if his application at court should be successful; but so much difficulty attended the prosecution of his suit, and he met with so many delays and insults, that he was actually on the point of leaving Spain for England, to see what success his brother had met with, and, in case his applications had been equally fruitless, to offer his proposals to the court of France.

At this interval, Queen Isabella was prevailed upon to encourage his plan, and articles of agreement were signed at Santa Fé, in the kingdom of Granada on the 17th of April, 1492.

By this agreement, Columbus was to be admiral of the seas, and viceroy of all the countries he should discover: he was to have a tenth part of the profits redounding to their majesties from his labors, and an eighth of what he should bring home in his ships—himself furnishing one eighth of the expense of the equipment.

When this agreement was concluded, he was allowed three vessels: the Galea, which he named the Santa Maria, a carrac, or ship with a deck, commanded by himself; the Pinta, of which Martin Alonzo Pinzon was captain; and the Nina, under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon, brother to Martin Alonzo, who furnished half of Columbus's share of the expense. These two vessels were called caravels, that is, ships without decks; and the whole fleet, which carried but one hundred and twenty men, put to sea from Palos, on Friday, the 3d day of August, 1492.

On the next morning the rudder of the Pinta breaking loose, they made it fast in the best manner they were able with cords, till they had an opportunity effectually to repair it. Several of the seamen began to consider this as an ill omen; but the admiral told them that "no omen could be evil to those whose designs were good."

They arrived at the Canaries on the 11th of August, where they remained, refreshing themselves, till the 6th of September; when they weighed anchor and proceeded on their voyage, for fear of the Portuguese, who had fitted out three caravels to attack them.

On the 7th they lost sight of land, and with it all their courage, bitterly bemoaning their fate, as that of wretches destined to certain destruction. Columbus comforted these cowards in the best manner he was able, setting before them the certain prospect of wealth and happiness as the reward of their labors—and, that they might not think themselves so far from home as they really were

he resolved, during the whole voyage, to deceive them in the reckoning : and having this day sailed eighteen leagues, he pretended they had made no more than fifteen.

On the 14th of September, they took notice of the variation of the compass, and the people on board the *Nina* saw a heron and some tropic birds, and the next day the sea was covered with yellow and green weeds, among which they saw a live lobster ; and as they advanced they found the sea-water less salt, from which circumstances they imagined they were near land.

Alonzo Pinzon, who had been ahead, lay by for the captain on the 18th, acquainting him that he had seen a large number of birds flying westward, and imagined he saw land fifteen leagues to the north ; but Columbus, having no doubt but he was mistaken, would not alter his course, though most earnestly solicited so to do by the sailors.

On the 19th, the sight of a great number of sea-gulls, which it was imagined could not fly far, began to give the admiral himself some hopes of seeing land speedily ; but, on sounding with a line of two hundred fathoms, no bottom could be found. They now saw abundance of weeds, and three days afterward took a bird like a heron, web-footed, of a dark color, with a white tuft on the head ; and, in the evening, saw three small singing-birds, which flew away at break of day.

They now encountered such a quantity of weeds, that they were apprehensive the ships would not long be able to make their way. Till this time the wind had been always right astern ; but now shifting to the southwest, gave the admiral an opportunity of exposing the groundless fears of the sailors, who had imagined they should never have a fair wind to carry them back : but notwithstanding all he could say to them, they loudly complained of the danger they were in of perishing at sea, and a mutiny would, in all probability, have been the consequence of their clamors, but for a strong gale which sprung up at west northwest, and convinced them that there was no danger of their having no opportunity to return.

Several flights of small birds, which they observed coming from the west, and a pigeon, which flew over the ship, gave them fresh hopes of making land ; but when they found themselves disappointed, their mortification was the greater, and their complaints increased.

They censured the admiral as a person who, from an idle ambition of aggrandizing himself and his own family, had led them into dangers and difficulties, in search of a country which nowhere existed. They said they had given sufficient proofs of their courage by venturing so far from home, and began to entertain serious thoughts of compelling Columbus to return. In a word, so great were their fears, that some of them were for throwing the admiral overboard, and asserting, on their return to Spain, that he fell into the sea as he was gazing at the stars !

Columbus was not insensible of the spirit of mutiny by which they were actuated, and exerted himself, partly by representing their duty to the king, partly by threats of punishment in case of disobedience, and partly by promises of the reward of their perseverance ; so that the enterprise received no detriment from their ill-grounded fears and apprehensions.

The men were, however, extremely anxious and disconsolate, till on the 25th of September, about sunset, while Columbus was talking to Vincent Yanez Pinzon, he cried, " Land ! land ! Let me not lose the reward for this good news !"—and immediately pointed toward the southwest, where there was something which looked like an island, at the distance of twenty-five leagues.

This, which was afterward looked on as a contrivance between Columbus and Pinzon, so animated the men, that they returned thanks to God with the utmost fervency, and the admiral, at the earnest entreaty of the crew, steered



Mutiny on board the Santa Maria.

toward the supposed island most part of the night ; but in the morning no island was to be seen, and the men were as loud in their complaints as ever.

Columbus continued on his course with the utmost resolution ; and on the 29th they saw many flying-fishes, some of which fell into the ship. They also saw a gull, several wagtails, and other birds, and were encompassed with so great a quantity of weeds, that the men thought they were near land, and in danger of running aground.

On the 30th they also saw many wagtails, and observed that the weeds lay in a line from west-northwest to east-southeast.

At break of day, on the 1st of October, a wagtail came on board the admiral, and that day the pilot told the admiral that they were five hundred and seventy-eight leagues west of the island of Ferro ; but by Columbus's account they were seven hundred and seven : but he took no notice of the error, because he would not discourage the sailors.

On the 2d they killed a tunny-fish and some birds ; but seeing no birds on the 3d day, they feared they had missed some islands, and the men begged the admiral to steer either to the right or left : but, regardless of their entreaties, he resolved to keep right on his course, that the credit of his undertaking might not suffer by an idle compliance with their demands.

Hereupon the men began to mutiny, and would probably have taken some desperate measures had not the flight of upward of forty sparrows and other birds, from the west, again given them hopes that they were near land. Some signs of land appeared to the westward on the 7th of October, but the weather being hazy no one would venture to cry land.

An annuity of ten thousand marvadies, or thirty crowns for life, had been offered by their catholic majesties to the person who should first discover land ; but if any one cried out land, and it did not prove to be so, he was to be excluded from the reward, even though he should afterward discover it. But the

people of the *Nina*, which was generally ahead, fired a gun, and hoisted colors, concluding it was certainly land; but as they sailed farther they were soon undeceived.

Next day they saw many birds, both large and small, among which were some land-fowl, flying from the west to the southwest; and Columbus, thinking they could not fly far, imitated the Portuguese, who, by following such flights of birds, had discovered several islands: he therefore changed his course, and stood for the west; and having already sailed seven hundred and twenty leagues to the westward of the Canaries, imagined he should soon find land; and he had often told the sailors to expect it at that distance.

They saw twelve singing-birds, and many ducks, gulls, and jays, on the 8th of October; and on the 11th, when all the admiral's skill and address would have been insufficient to withstand much longer the mutinous disposition of the crew, he was comforted with indubitable proofs of their being near land: for on this day they saw a green rush, and a large rock-fish swim near the admiral's ship; and those on board the *Pinta* took up a staff most curiously wrought, and saw a cane floating, and a number of weeds fresh torn from the shore.

On the evening of this day the admiral represented to his men how merciful God had been to them, in conducting them safe so long a voyage, and said that since the tokens he now saw were proofs that they were near land, he would have them watch all night, and they would most likely discover it before the morning; and he promised to give a velvet doublet, as an addition to their majesties' reward, to the person who should make the discovery.

Two hours before midnight, Columbus, standing on the poop, saw a light on shore, and called Guitierres, groom of the privy chamber to the king, who also saw it. It appeared like a candle, or other light, carried in a person's hand, from one house to another.

About two o'clock in the morning land was discovered, at the distance of two leagues, by Roderic de Trians, on board the *Pinta*, which was considerably ahead; but the reward was afterward paid to Columbus, by order of their catholic majesties, for having first discovered the light.

The ships now lay to, and the people waited with the utmost anxiety for a sight of that land of which they had been so long in search; and at the break of day they had the pleasure to behold an island about fifteen leagues in length, of a flat surface, well covered with wood and watered, with a large lake in the middle of it. It appeared to be full of inhabitants, who waited on the shore, astonished at the sight of the ships, which they took for prodigious sea-monsters.

The sailors were extremely eager to be on shore; and as soon as the vessels were brought to an anchor, the admiral went on shore, with the royal colors flying, as did the captains, carrying the colors of their enterprise, being a green cross with crowns, and the names of their catholic majesties.

They were no sooner on shore, than they fell on their knees, and kissing the ground, with tears of joy, gave thanks to God for his goodness; when the admiral stood up, and gave the island the name of St. Salvador, which the natives called *Guanihani*; but it is now known by the name of Cat island.

Columbus having taken possession of the island for the king and queen of Spain, the sailors acknowledged his authority, begged pardon for their former behavior, and promised the utmost obedience for the future.

On his return, when near the coast of Portugal, a terrible storm arose, and he found it expedient to anchor off Lisbon, where he was warmly solicited by the king of Portugal to re-enter his service, but this was declined. Columbus again made sail, and in a few days came to anchor in the port of Palos.

Columbus gave their majesties an account of his voyages and discoveries, showed the Indians as they appeared in their own country, and exhibited all the curiosities he had brought. When he had concluded his account, their

majesties knelt down, and with tears in their eyes returned thanks to God, and immediately the choristers of the chapel sang *Te Deum*.

The articles heretofore concluded with the admiral were only in form of a contract; but as he had performed what he engaged to do, their majesties now passed grants, making good what they had before promised him.

When his majesty rode through Barcelona, he would make the admiral ride by his side, an honor, till then, peculiar to the princes of the blood. The importance of his discoveries induced their majesties to despatch an ambassador to Pope Alexander VI., requesting his authority for an exclusive title to the countries which had been or might be discovered. This the pope readily complied with, drawing a line from pole to pole, one hundred leagues westward from the Cape de Verd islands, granting to their majesties all the dominions beyond that part of the globe,

The son of the poor wool-comber of Genoa was laden with every honor that power could bestow. His patroness, Isabella, received him with open arms; the very courts that had denied him aid now solicited his presence; and at the tables of the noblest he became an honored guest.

Among many others of the grandes of Spain, Pedro Gonzales de Mendoza, the grand cardinal of Spain, invited Columbus to a banquet. He gave him the most honorable place at table, and, notwithstanding etiquette to its fullest extent was at that time punctiliously observed, he served him with ceremonies which were observed toward sovereigns. It was at that banquet that the anecdote of the egg is said to have occurred, which scene is graphically delineated in our engraving. A courtier who was present, possessing more impudence than wit, and jealous of Columbus because he was a foreigner, and so highly honored by his master, abruptly asked him whether he thought that, in case he had not discovered the Indies, there were not other men who would have been capable of the enterprise. Columbus, looking with proper contempt upon the fellow, deigned no reply, but, taking an egg, invited the company to make it stand upon one end. All attempted it, but in vain, whereupon he struck it upon the table so as to break the end, and left it standing upon the broken part. This, in the most simple manner, illustrated the fact that when he had once shown the way to the New World, it was a very easy thing to follow. The rebuke was felt, and the courtier held his peace. "This anecdote," says Irving, "rests on the authority of the Italian historian Benzoni. It has been condemned as trivial, but the simplicity of the reproof constituted its severity, and was characteristic of the practical sagacity of Columbus. The universal popularity of the anecdote is a proof of its merit."

On the 25th of September, 1493, Columbus sailed on his second voyage, in which he discovered more of the West India islands.

On the 13th of May, 1498, Columbus commenced his third voyage, from the bay of St. Lucas, and after seeing some new islands, on the 1st of August he discovered the continent; but imagining it to be an island, he termed it *Isla Santa*. From this cruise Columbus was brought back in chains to Cadiz in consequence of false charges made against him by interested individuals; but he was soon restored to the favor of his king and master.

A new voyage was now projected, which was commenced on the 4th of May, 1502. In this he was very successful as a discoverer, but on his return home his health failed, and he died May 15, 1506. His body was taken to the Carthusian convent, and thence to St. Domingo. His bones, however, were afterward removed to Cuba, and are still preserved in the cathedral at Havana.

In the cathedral of Seville, there is a flat stone with an inscription, which when translated, states—

"To Castile and Leon
Columbus gave a new world."



Columbus and the B-44.

Such was the end of this great man, to whom the Spaniards are indebted for their American possessions, and who, from the boldness of his undertakings, and the greatness of his achievements, may, in a great degree, be considered as the Father of Navigation.

Columbus was in stature tall, his face long, his aspect majestic, his nose aquiline, his eyes gray, his complexion ruddy and clear; his beard and hair were fair in his youth, but the many hardships he suffered soon turned them gray. He was a man of wit and pleasantry, yet modestly grave, and eloquent in discourse. He was affable to strangers, and kind to his own family. He had an air of authority and grandeur that commanded respect; he was temperate in eating and drinking, and modest in his dress. He was strict in religion, according to the mode of his country, and obliged those under him to pay at least a decent regard to it. He much desired the conversion of the Indians, and did what he could to allure them, by obliging the Spaniards to lead a life in some measure agreeable to the faith they professed. He was a man of undaunted courage, and fond of great enterprises. He remained unmoved amid the many troubles and adversities that attended him, ever relying on the Divine Providence.

This is the account given of the famous Columbus, by a Spanish writer of knowledge and fidelity, who adds that—

“His name will be renowned as long as the world endures.”

AMERICUS VESPUCIUS.

AMERICUS VESPUCIUS, or more properly Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine gentleman, from whom America derives its name, was born March 9, 1451, of an ancient family. His father, who was an Italian merchant, brought him up in this business, and his profession led him to visit Spain and other countries. Being eminently skilled in all the sciences subservient to navigation, and possessing an enterprising spirit, he became desirous of seeing the new world, which Columbus had discovered in 1492. He accordingly entered as a merchant on board the small fleet of four ships, equipped by the merchants of Seville and set out under the command of Ojeda. The enterprise was sanctioned by a royal license. According to Amerigo's own account he sailed from Cadiz, May 20, 1497, and returned to the same port, October 15, 1498, having discovered the coast of Paria and passed as far as the gulf of Mexico. If this statement is correct, he saw the continent before Columbus; but its correctness has been disproved, and the voyage of Ojeda was not made until 1499, which Amerigo calls his second voyage, falsely representing that he himself had the command of six vessels. He sailed May 20, 1499, under the command of Ojeda, and proceeded to the Antilles islands, and thence to the coast of Guiana and Venezuela, and returned to Cadiz in November, 1500. After his return, Emanuel, king of Portugal, who was jealous of the success and glory of Spain, invited him to his kingdom, and gave him the command of three ships to make a third voyage of discovery. He sailed from Lisbon, May 10, 1501, and ran down the coasts of Africa as far as Sierra Leone and the coast of Angola, and then passed over to Brazil in South America, and continued his discoveries to the south as far as Patagonia. He then returned to Sierra Leone and the coast of Guinea, and entered again the port of Lisbon, September 7, 1502.

King Emanuel, highly gratified by his success, equipped for him six ships, with which he sailed on his fourth and last voyage, May 10, 1503. It was his



Americus Vesputius.

object to discover a western passage to the Molucca islands. He passed the coasts of Africa, and entered the bay of All Saints in Brazil. Having provision for only twenty months, and being detained on the coast of Brazil by bad weather and contrary winds five months, he formed the resolution of returning to Portugal, where he arrived June 14, 1504. As he carried home with him considerable quantities of the Brazil wood, and other articles of value, he was received with joy. It was soon after this period, that he wrote an account of his four voyages. The work was dedicated to Rene II., duke of Lorraine, who took the title of the king of Sicily, and died December 10, 1508. It was probably published about the year 1507, for in that year he went from Lisbon to Seville, and King Ferdinand appointed him to draw sea-charts with the title of chief pilot. He died at the island of Tercera in 1514, aged about sixty-three years, or agreeably to another account, at Seville, in 1512.

As he published the first book and chart, describing the new world, and as he claimed the honor of first discovering the continent, the new world has received from him the name of *America*. His pretensions, however, to this first discovery, do not seem to be well supported against the claims of Columbus,

to whom the honor is uniformly ascribed by the Spanish historians, and who first saw the continent in 1498. Herrera, who compiled his general history of America from the most authentic records, says, that Amerigo never made but two voyages, and those were with Ojeda in 1499 and 1501, and that his relation of his other voyages was proved to be a mere imposition.

Thus charge of Herrera needs to be confirmed by strong proof, for Amerigo's book was published within ten years of the period assigned for his first voyage, when the facts must have been fresh in the memories of thousands. Besides the improbability of his being guilty of falsifying dates, as he was accused, which arises from this circumstance, it is very possible, that the Spanish writers might have felt a national resentment against him for having deserted the service of Spain. But the evidence against the honesty of Amerigo is very convincing. Neither Martyr nor Benzoni, who were Italians, natives of the same country, and the former of whom was a contemporary, attribute to him the first discovery of the continent. Martyr published the first general history of the new world, and his epistles contain an account of all the remarkable events of his time. All the Spanish historians are against Amerigo. Herrera brings against him the testimony of Ojeda as given in a judicial inquiry. Fonseca, who gave Ojeda the license for his voyage, was not reinstated in the direction of Indian affairs until after the time, which Amerigo assigns for the commencement of his first voyage. Other circumstances might be mentioned; and the whole mass of evidence it is difficult to resist. The book of Amerigo was probably published about a year after the death of Columbus, when his pretensions could be advanced without the fear of refutation from that illustrious navigator. A life of Vespucci was published at Florence by Bandani, in 1742, in which an attempt is made to support his pretensions.

COPERNICUS.

NICHOLAS COPERNICUS, a celebrated mathematician and astronomer, was born at Thorn, in Prussia, January 19, 1472. He received his education at the University of Cracow. In his twenty-third year he set out for Italy, in search of knowledge; and so great was his reputation, that on his arrival at Rome, he was appointed professor of mathematics. After some years' absence, he returned to his native country; when his uncle, the bishop of Warmia, gave him a canonry: and being thus at ease as to fortune, he began to apply the vast knowledge which he possessed to the examination and correction of the Ptolemaic system then universally adopted and followed. The opinions of preceding philosophers were weighed with accuracy and judgment; but of all the systems of ancient times, none pleased the illustrious mathematician so much as that of Pythagoras, for its beauty, simplicity, and ease. In his thirty-fifth year, Copernicus bent all the powers of his mind to this intricate subject; and after twenty years' laborious study, the cycles and epicycles of former astronomers were removed from the machine of the universe, and the sun was nobly and independently placed in the centre, to illuminate and govern the whole. But enough convinced of the truth of his hypothesis, the philosopher yet dreaded the ignorance and persecution of the times. Aware that bigotry would probably assail him, he says, in his prefatory address to the pope: "If there be any who, though ignorant of mathematics, should presume to judge concerning them, and dare to condemn this treatise because they fancy it is inconsistent with some passages of scripture, the sense of which they have miserably perverted, I regard them not, but despise their rash censure." His work lay long con-

ceased, till the importunities of his friends prevailed upon him to publish; but a few hours after the first copy was brought to him, he was seized with a violent effusion of blood, which terminated his life, May 24, 1543, in his seventieth year. Copernicus was truly great, for to the extensive knowledge of a comprehensive mind, he united the mild virtues and the innocence of private life.

ERASMUS.



Portrait of Erasmus reading.

DESIDERIUS ERASMUS, one of the most eminent scholars of the age in which he lived, was born at Rotterdam, October 28, 1467. He was the illegitimate son of one Gerard, by the daughter of a physician; but his father and mother dying when he was only nine years old, he was left to the care of three guardians, who determined on bringing him up to a religious life, that they might enjoy his patrimony; for which purpose they removed him from one convent to another, till at last, in 1486, he took the habit among the canons-regular at Stein, near Tergou.

Erasmus took his father's name only, according to what was then the fashion among scholars, turning it into Greek, Erasmus, or, as it should rather have been, Erasimus, signifying *amiable* in that language, as Gerard does in Dutch. To this he prefixed the other Latin name Desiderius (in French, Didier), which has been regarded as having the same signification.

The monastic life being disagreeable to Erasmus, he accepted an invitation from the archbishop of Cambray to reside with him. During his abode with this prelate he was ordained priest; but in 1496 he went to Paris, and sup-

ported himself by giving private lectures. In 1497, he visited England, and met with a liberal reception from the most eminent scholars. On his return, he spent twelve years in France, Italy, and the Netherlands; and during that time he published several works of great merit. In 1506 he took his doctor's degree at Turin, and went to Bologna, where he continued some time; thence he removed to Venice, and resided with the famous Aldus Manutius. From Venice he went to Padua and Rome, where many offers were made him to settle; but having received an invitation from Henry VIII., he went to England again in 1510; wrote his "Praise and Folly," while residing with Sir Thomas More; and was appointed Margaret professor of divinity, and Greek lecturer, at Cambridge.

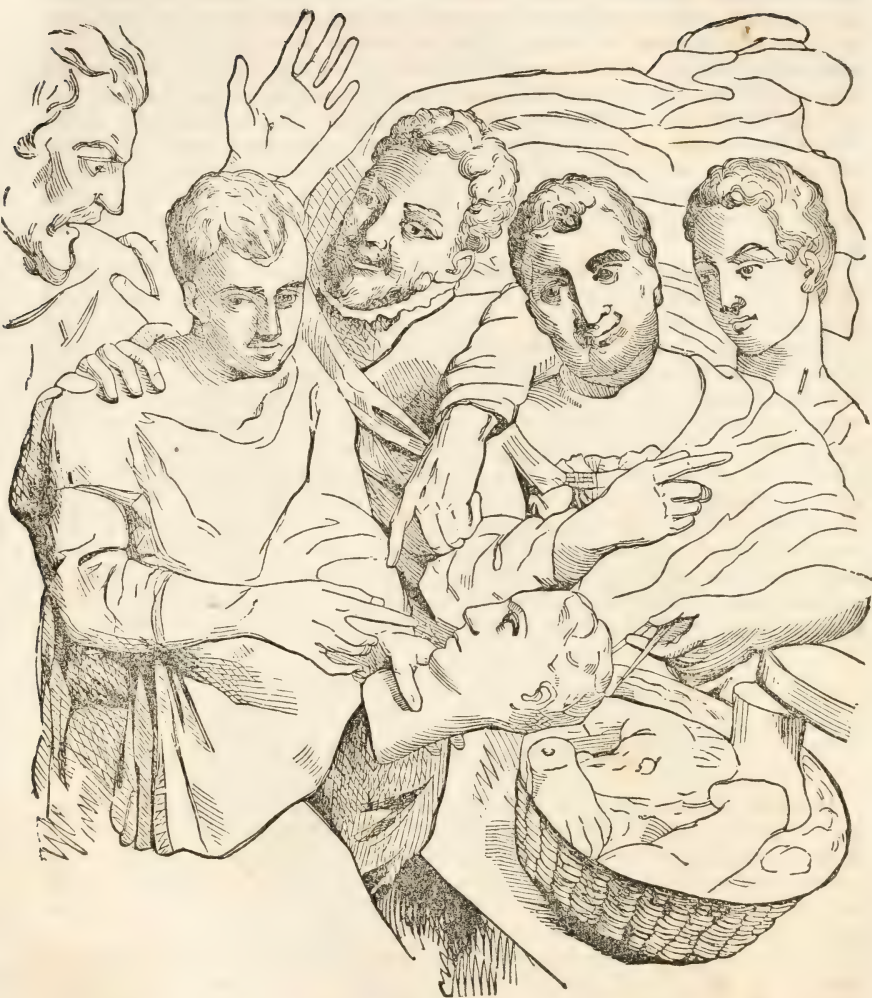
In 1514, Erasmus once more returned to the continent, and lived chiefly at Basle, in Switzerland, where he vigorously continued his literary labors, and prepared his edition of the New Testament, with a Latin translation; his "Ciceronianus," and his celebrated "Colloquies"—which latter gave such offence to the monks, that they used to say, "Erasmus laid the egg which Luther hatched." With Luther, however, whom he had provoked by his treatise on "Free Will," he was in open hostility. In 1528 appeared his learned work, "*De recta Latinis Græcique Sermonis Pronunciatione*;" and his last publication, which was printed the year before his death, was entitled "Ecclesiastes, or the Manner of Preaching." He died at Basle, on the 12th of July, 1536, and was interred with great pomp in that city. His native town of Rotterdam, however, although it neither received his remains, nor had been much honored by his presence while he lived, was so proud of having given birth to so illustrious a writer, that his statue in bronze was placed by the authorities in a conspicuous situation in one of their public places, where it still remains

MICHAEL ANGELO.

MICHAEL ANGELO BUONAROTTI, the descendant of a noble but reduced family in Tuscany, was born in 1474, in the territory of Arezzo. He was endowed with extraordinary abilities, being incomparable as a painter, sculptor, and architect, and as a poet he was far above mediocrity. In his childhood he was of a weakly constitution, and to guard his health he was very abstemious, partaking but sparingly of the pleasures of the table.

His first step within the enchanted circle of art was hand in hand with poetry. The light to his path was kindled at the altar of each muse, and its warmth and inspiration may be traced from his earliest essays in the garden of the Medici to the very dome of St. Peter's. His mind and hand were schooled together from the first: they created and produced as if by a single impulse.

A head or rather mask of a laughing fawn, now preserved as a treasure in the Florentine Museum, was the first essay in marble known to have come from his hand: it was considered a wonder at the time for so young an artist, and elicited much praise. Fortune seemed to have spared Michael Angelo the pains and trials so commonly the fate of genius in the beginning of its career, and to have placed him at once on the high road in which he was destined to become so distinguished. Lorenzo di Medici found the young artist among the sculptors, busily engaged in polishing his mask, and was struck with his appearance and address, as well as with admiration and wonder at the work on which he was employed. "But," said the prince, "you have restored to the old man his teeth, when you ought to know that a person of that age has gen-



Michael Angelo exhibiting one of his earlier Efforts before the Great Masters.

enerally some wanting." The young sculptor, diffident of himself, on the departure of Lorenzo broke a tooth from the upper jaw, and drilled a hole in the gum to indicate that it had fallen out. His modesty, and the deference paid to the criticism of the prince, sealed his fortune, and secured to the world a Michael Angelo. Lorenzo adopted him into his family, and treated him as his son.

On the death of Lorenzo di Medici, in 1492, he lost a kind friend and patron; and though he received some favor from his brother Pietro, there was little honor in his patronage, for he used to boast that he had two extraordinary men in his house—Michael Angelo the carver, and a Spaniard who could outrun a horse! It can be well imagined that such a house and such associations were little suited to the habits or taste of a man of genius. He went to Bo-

logna and Rome, and in both cities gained much reputation by several great works that he executed in marble. While in Rome, he made a cartoon of St. Francis receiving the stigmata. Returning to Florence, he next produced his colossal statue of David, another figure in bronze, and a group of David and Goliath.

On the accession of Pope Julius II., Michael Angelo was among the first invited to the papal court, where he received a commission to make a mausoleum. The plan was a parallelogram, and the superstructure was intended to consist of forty statues, many of which were to be colossal, intermixed with ornamental figures and basso-relievos in bronze, besides architecture. When this superb design was composed, it met the pope's approbation, and Michael Angelo was desired to inspect St. Peter's for the purpose of finding a place where it could be erected. The artist fixed upon a spot; but the church itself being old and ill adapted to such a magnificent structure, the pope determined to pull it down and build a new one. Such is the origin of this celebrated edifice, the completion of which took one hundred and fifty years; and while it was going on, the Roman catholic religion received a blow that shook its foundation.

He was next engaged by the pope to ornament the walls of the Sistine chapel. Unaccustomed to work in fresco, he invited some of the best painters in this branch from Florence to instruct him. When he acquired what he deemed necessary, he effaced their labors entirely, and set about the work without an assistant. When the task was about half finished, he exhibited it a little while to the public. He then applied himself to the other part, but proceeding more slowly than the impatience of the pontiff could endure, he was compelled to use greater despatch, and without assistance finished the greater part then incomplete in twenty months. He worked without assistance, for such was the delicacy of his taste, that no artist could please him; and as in sculpture, every piercer, file, and chisel, which he used, was the work of his own hands, so in painting, he prepared his own colors, and did not commit the mixing and other manipulations to workmen or boys. On All-Saints' day, the chapel was opened by a solemn mass, in which the pope officiated in person.

Three months after the completion of the ceiling of the Sistine chapel, Pope Julius died, and was succeeded by Leo X., during whose pontificate Michael Angelo seems to have been strangely set aside, or rather his talents perverted to occupations far beneath him. He had received instructions to construct a monument to Julius II., on a smaller scale than the mausoleum before mentioned, and he was anxious to complete the work, when he was called from it by Leo to go to Florence, for the purpose of building the façade to the church of St. Lorenzo. He would have remonstrated, but submission was the lot even of Michael Angelo, in what has been so often termed the golden era of arts and artists. While at Carrara procuring the marble, he received a mandate from the pope to go to Pietra Santa for that purpose. Buonarrotti complied, but reported the marble of bad quality, and that there was no way of conveying it to Florence without making a road over mountains and marshes to the sea. The pope persisted, and commanded him to proceed; the consequence of which was, that the talents of this great man were buried in those mountains during the whole pontificate of Leo, in raising stone and making a road!

In the succeeding pontificate of Adrian VI., Michael Angelo, always occupied in sculpture and architecture, almost wholly abandoned painting. His friend Cardinal Giuliano de Medici commissioned him to build a library and sacristy for the church of St. Lorenzo, to serve as a mausoleum for his family. These, and two monuments for the dukes Giuliano and Lorenzo, took up the whole of his attention during this pontificate, which ended in 1523. Under Clement VII., formerly Giuliano de Medici, he went on with the chapel and

library before mentioned, besides which he executed a Christ of the natural size, to be placed on the altar in the church of Santa Maria Sopra Minerva, at Rome.

We now see him throwing aside the pencil and the chisel, buckling on his armor for the defence of his country, and in the war which broke out he was employed as chief engineer and superintendent of fortifications. At this day the Florentines show with pride the battlements and towers as well as the unrivalled embellishments in art that they owe to his genius. Disgusted at the instability of the people, and alarmed for the republic by the plots that threatened it, he retired to Venice, but returned at the urgent solicitation of the citizens of Florence. Soon after, Florence surrendered to the pope, and Michael Angelo was compelled to secrete himself until a pardon for him could be obtained, the price of which was, that he should finish the monuments he had begun. On the restoration of peace, he was called by the duke of Urbino to finish the monument of Julius II., and while engaged upon it, was again interrupted by the pope, who ordered him to paint the two end walls of the Sistine chapel. At length he was permitted to complete his task, and the monument was placed, not in St. Peter's as intended, but in the church of St. Pietro, in Vinculo.

Clement VII. had conceived the idea of employing him on two great historical works for the Sistine chapel—the Fall of the Angels, and the Last Judgment. Michael Angelo had composed designs for the Last Judgment, and Paul III., being aware of this, commanded or rather entreated him to commence the work. He was now on the verge of sixty years of age, and we find him setting about this great work with the energy and spirit of renewed youth. It was completed and the chapel opened with great solemnity on Christmas day, 1541, eight years from its commencement. The performance gave such satisfaction to Pope Paul III., that he settled a pension on the artist, amounting to about three thousand dollars of our money a year.

If, in the ceiling of the chapel, he could not fully satisfy himself, and was unable to retouch it as he wished after it was dry—in this immense painting he had an opportunity of fulfilling his intentions, and of demonstrating to the full the powers of his genius. He peopled this space, and disposed innumerable figures awakened by the sound of the last trumpet; bands of angels and of devils; of elected and condemned souls; some flying to the regions of bliss, while others are dragged down to punishment. The subject itself appeared rather created than selected by him; and to a genius so comprehensive, and one so skilled in drawing the human figure, none could be better adapted: to an artist who delighted in the awful, no story more suitable than the day of supernal terrors. He saw Raphael pre-eminent in every other department of art, his memory cherished and immortalized, and he foresaw that in this alone could he expect to be triumphant; and perhaps he indulged the hope that posterity would adjudge the palm to him who excelled all others in the most arduous walk of art. Neither landscape, trees, nor houses, are to be seen in it; and we look in vain for some degree of variety and ornament, which are never attempted, probably because he disdained to submit his towering genius to such subjects. It is more probable that, discovering his strength in this style, he attempted no other. Thus he proceeded as in his own peculiar province, observed no limits, and wished for no control. That a course so far above the sphere of all that had gone before him, and all that surrounded him, in a world of thought and amid a race of beings of his own creation, should have led even the mind of Michael Angelo astray, can not be wondered at, and we must look upon his wanderings from truth and even propriety with indulgence. It is the right of genius like his. Criticism and censure of such a work as the Last Judgment should be ventured upon with caution, but at the same time his

most ardent admirers can find no apology for the unnecessary and strange manner in which he has confounded sacred with profane history—for introducing the angels of Revelation with the Stygian ferryman; Christ sitting in judgment, and Minos assigning his proper station to each of the damned. To this profanity he added satire, by portraying in Minos the features of a master of ceremonies, who, in the hearing of the pope, had pronounced the picture more suitable to a bagnio than a church. It is said that not only the likeness of the master of ceremonies, but many others of higher dignity, even cardinals themselves, whom he disliked, he introduced in the picture in no very enviable position among the damned; a grievance that was represented to the pope to be remedied, but without success, for the pontiff facetiously replied that "Michael Angelo had placed them beyond his authority: had they been in purgatory, he might have helped them!"

The Last Judgment was filled with such a profusion of nudity, that it was in great danger of being destroyed by Paul IV., who proposed to whitewash it, and was hardly appeased by a correction of its most daring indelicacies, by drapery introduced by Daniel de Volterra, on whom the facetious Romans conferred the nickname of "the breeches-maker."

Near to the Sistine chapel, Antonio de San Gallo, the architect, built another, called the Paoline, in honor of the pope, who ordered Michael Angelo to paint two large pictures for it. This he accomplished, and, though an old man, produced in a short time two pieces, the subjects of which were the martyrdom of St. Peter and the conversion of St. Paul, now almost obliterated by the smoke of candles and incense. The pope often consulted Michael Angelo on his buildings, and when San Gallo died, in 1546, his holiness conferred on him the title of architect, which he accepted only on the condition that he should receive no salary.

He was now called upon to carry on the great work of St. Peter's, in executing which he deviated from the Saracenic model of San Gallo, to adopt a more Christian and superb one, in the form of the cross. Having commenced his labors on this edifice before the end of the pontificate of Paul, it had assumed a general form and character. The sculptor and painter now became the architect of his time, and nothing was done at the Vatican, nor the pope's villa in the Flaminian Way, without his advice and superintendence. In 1555, that pontiff (Julius III.) died, and happy had it been for Michael Angelo, if he had passed from the stage of life with him. The clouds that gathered about the evening of his days saddened his heart, and the remainder of his life was a harassing round of trials, proceeding from the fatigue, caprice, and opposition, to which he was subjected. Under all, the old man, unbent in mind and body with the weight of fourscore years, went on with his vast undertaking, and even furnished designs for other works with the alacrity of a youthful mind. Notwithstanding this, his adversaries multiplied; and Buonarotti, finding that he had lived too long, was anxious to retire from a scene of so much vexation and persecution that he felt he so little deserved. "They speak of me," said he, in a letter to a friend, "as if I had crucified Christ!" The old man was doomed to suffer on, for the pope refused to allow him to retire, and he retained the place which he had so long and so honorably filled, till his death, February 17, 1563, at the advanced age of eighty-eight years, eleven months, and fifteen days. His last words were, "My soul I resign to God, my body to the earth, and my worldly possessions to my nearest of kin." Then turning to those around him, he said, "In your passage through this life, remember the sufferings of Jesus Christ."

Michael Angelo was of a middle size, bony make, and rather broad over the shoulders. His complexion was good, his forehead square, his eyes small, and his nose flat, being disfigured by a blow which he received when a youth from

his fellow-student Torrigiano. Cellini says that he was "eminently distinguished for the most complaisant and obliging man in the universe."

It is a vulgar error to suppose that grace and beauty were beyond the attainment of Michael Angelo. Among the giants of the mind that were his models, the delicate beauty and celestial loveliness that characterize the forms of his great rival, Raphael, would be out of place; but there are figures by Michael Angelo that even in this can not be surpassed. The Eve of the Sistine chapel turns to thank her Maker, on her creation, with an attitude that would do honor to Raphael himself.

Michael Angelo had no children, as he was never married. He used to say, "My works must supply the place of posterity; and if they are good for anything, they will live hereafter." He continued to study to the end of his long life, but never was satisfied with anything he did. Cardinal Farnese found him one day alone in the Coliseum, and on expressing surprise to find him among the ruins, he answered, "I go to school that I may learn something." A little before his death, he sketched an old man with a long beard, in a child's go-cart, an hour-glass before him, and over all the motto, "*Ancora imparo.*"

The love of wealth formed no part of Michael Angelo's character; and when offered lucrative commissions, he generally declined them, being more stimulated by friendship than the desire of gain. He was devoted to his art, and pursued it in all its distant connections, leaving no branch of knowledge unacquired that would assist him in reaching that perfection he sought. To this singleness of purpose, however he may have varied the use of his ample means thus gathered, may be traced the source of his strength, which, aided by a sublime and comprehensive genius, bore him triumphant through his great achievements. Whatever he touched, came from his hand with the impress of art, and poetry, and inspiration; for his mind had received its nurture and vigor at the purest fountains of each. They still flow on, but of the thousands that have sought them there has been but one MICHAEL ANGELO.

SEBASTIAN CABOT.

SEBASTIAN CABOT, who claims with Columbus to have been the first discoverer of the continent of America, was the son of John Cabot, a Venetian. He was born at Bristol, England, in 1477; and was taught by his father arithmetic, geometry, and cosmography. Before he was twenty years of age he made several voyages. The first of any consequence seems to have been made with his father, who had a commission from Henry VII. for the discovery of a north-west passage to India. They sailed in the spring of 1497; and proceeding to the northwest, they discovered land, which for that reason they called *Prima-vista*, or Newfoundland. Another smaller island they called St. John, from its being discovered on the feast of St. John Baptist; after which, they sailed along the coast of America as far as Cape Florida, and then returned to England with a good cargo and three Indians aboard.

Stowe and Speed ascribe these discoveries wholly to Sebastian, without mentioning his father. It is probable that Sebastian, after his father's death, made several voyages to these parts, as a map of his discoveries, drawn by himself, was hung up in the privy garden at Whitehall. However, history gives but little account of his life for nearly twenty years, when he went to Spain, where he was made pilot-major, and intrusted with reviewing all projects for discoveries, which were then very numerous. His great capacity and approved integrity induced many eminent merchants to treat with him about a



Sebastian Cabot.

voyage by the new-found straits of Magellan to the Moluccas. He therefore sailed in 1525, first to the Canaries, then to the Cape de Verd islands, thence to St. Augustine and the island of Patos; when some of his people beginning to be mutinous, and refusing to pass through the straits, he laid aside the design of sailing to the Moluccas, left some of the principal mutineers upon a desert island, and, sailing up the rivers of Plate and Paraguay, discovered and built forts in a large tract of fine country, that produced gold, silver, and other rich commodities. He thence despatched messengers to Spain for a supply of provisions, ammunition, goods for trade, and a recruit of men; but his request not being readily complied with, after staying five years in America, he returned home, where he met with a cold reception, the merchants being displeased at his not having pursued his voyage to the Moluccas, while his treatment of the mutineers had given umbrage at court. Hence he returned to England; and being introduced to the duke of Somerset, then lord protector, a new office was erected for him: he was made governor of the mystery and company of the merchant adventurers for the discovery of regions, dominions, islands, and places unknown; a pension was granted him, by letters-patent, of £166 13s. 4d. per annum; and he was consulted in all affairs relative to trade. In 1522, by his interest, the court fitted out some ships for the discovery of the northern parts of the world. This produced the first voyage the English made to Russia, and the beginning of that commerce which has ever since been carried on between the two nations. The Russia Company was now founded by a charter granted by Philip and Mary; and of this company Sebastian was appointed governor for life. He is said to be the first who took notice of the variation of the needle, and who published a map of the world. The exact time of his death is not known, but he lived to be above seventy years of age



MONTEZUMA.

MONTEZUMA, the last of the Aztec kings, and the emperor of Mexico at the time of the Spanish invasion under Cortez, in 1519, was born in Tenochtetlan, in Mexico, in 1480. He was the son of King Avayatl, who built the great temple dedicated to the sun. He ascended the throne of Mexico in 1511, and displayed great firmness and powers of mind in opposing the Spaniards, whom an ignorant people regarded as more than mortals. He was at last seized by Cortez in a pretended sedition, loaded with chains, and compelled to acknowledge the supremacy of Spain. The Mexicans resented the indignities offered to their king, and Cortez, apprehensive of a fatal insurrection, in 1521 made his royal prisoner appear before his irritated subjects on the top of a house, and, arrayed in his robes, attempt to repress their violence. His sight for a moment checked the popular fury; but the monarch, wounded by two arrows, and by the blow of a stone, fell to the ground, and soon after, refusing all aliment, and rejecting every invitation of becoming a Christian convert, expired, to the great regret of the Spaniards and of his subjects. Charles V. gave a grant of lands, and the title of count of Montezuma, to one of his sons, who was the founder of a noble family in Spain.

Montezuma lived in a style of magnificence surpassing, if possible, the descriptions of oriental romance. Besides the palace in which he kept his court, he had several magnificent pleasure-houses, in one of which, a most elegant

building supported by pillars of jasper, he kept an aviary of birds, remarkable for either their singing or plumage, so numerous, that three hundred men were employed in attending them.

Not far from this was another vast edifice, where the emperor's fowlers resided, and took care of the birds of prey, among which were some bred to the game like hawks, and in the same place were voracious eagles of a very extraordinary size. In the second square of this house his wild beasts were kept, consisting of bears, tigers, lions, and Mexican bulls, which are extremely strong, nimble, and fierce; and over their dens was a large apartment for buffoons and monsters, who were kept and instructed for the entertainment of the emperor.

Montezuma's grandeur was equally conspicuous in his armories. In one building a number of workmen were employed in making shafts for arrows, grinding flints for the points, and forming all sorts of arms, offensive and defensive; in another building the arms were laid up in great order: these consisted of bows, arrows and quivers, two-handed swords edged with flints, darts and javelins, head-pieces, breastplates, quilted jackets, and bucklers made of impenetrable skins to cover the whole body, which they carried rolled upon their shoulders till they were ready to engage. To all these buildings there were large gardens well cultivated, producing a great variety of fragrant flowers and medicinal herbs set in squares, and adorned with beautiful summer-houses and fountains of water.

But of all Montezuma's buildings, the most remarkable was his house of sorrow, to which he retired on the death of any favorite relation, or in case of public calamity: this place was very well adapted to promote gloomy sentiments; the walls, roofs, and ornaments, were black; instead of windows, it had only narrow openings in the walls, which admitted no more light than was just sufficient to make the whole place appear more dismal.

The emperor had also several pleasant country-seats, with large forests for the chase of lions and tigers, in which he took great delight. In these sports a number of men were employed to surround the game, and contract the circle into a certain space, where he beheld the combats of his huntsmen with the wild beasts, in which exercise the Mexicans were not less daring than dexterous.

Montezuma had two sorts of guards—one of common soldiers, who filled the courts of the palace, and were posted in bodies at the principal gates; the other consisted of two hundred nobles of distinguished rank, who were obliged to attend every day at the palace, to guard his person. This attendance of the nobility was divided between two bodies, who were upon duty by turns, comprehending the lords of the whole empire, who were obliged to repair to court from the most distant provinces; a scheme contrived by Montezuma, who thereby kept the nobility in dependence, and had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with their persons, capacities, and dispositions.

He very seldom granted audience, and when any one was so far honored, he entered barefoot, and made three reverences, saying at first, "Lord!" at the second, "My lord!" and at the third, "Great lord!" He appeared in great state on these occasions, being surrounded by his courtiers; he listened attentively, and answered with severity, seeming delighted with the confusion of the speaker.

Montezuma frequently dined in public, but always sat alone at the table, which was usually covered with upward of two hundred dishes of different meats, out of which he fixed on a certain number for his own use, and ordered the rest to be divided among the nobility. He sat on a little stool at a large, low table which was covered with napkins and cloths of fine cotton. His dining-room was divided in the middle by a rail, which, without obstructing the view, kept

the domestics and crowd at a distance. Within the rails he was attended by three or four old favorite servants: the dishes were brought in by twenty women, richly dressed, who served up the meat, and presented him with the cup. The dishes (which were of fine earthen ware), as well as the cloths and napkins, having been once used, were distributed among the servants. He had cups and salvers of gold, and sometimes drank out of cocoa and other shells, richly ornamented with jewels.

He drank several sorts of liquors, one of which was a kind of beer made of maize; others were perfumed with rich odors, and a third sort mixed with the juice of salutiferous herbs. After eating, he drank a kind of chocolate, and used to smoke a sort of tobacco perfumed with liquid amber: indeed, the juice of this herb was one of the ingredients with which the priests wrought themselves up to a fit of enthusiasm, whenever they were obliged to deliver an oracular answer.

Among other attendants at his table, were generally three or four buffoons, who diverted him with their ludicrous talents, and at proper intervals he was entertained with music produced by pipes and sea-shells, accompanied by voices, that formed an agreeable concert. The subject of these songs was generally the exploits of their ancestors, and the memorable actions of their kings. They had also merry songs used in dancing, accompanied with the music of two little drums, made of hollow pieces of wood of different sizes and sounds: these were most commonly used in a dance called *mitates*, practised at festivals, in which the nobility and the vulgar, mingling without distinction, used to shout, make odd gesticulations, and drink to each other till they were drunk.

The people, at other times assembling in the squares and porches of the temple, made matches for wrestling, shooting at the mark, and running races. Here were also rope-dancers, performing in an astonishing manner, without the assistance of poles, and numbers of people playing at ball, near the statue of an idol, which the priests brought out, as the superintendent of that diversion. In a word, the inhabitants of Mexico were almost every day entertained with shows and amusements, contrived by Montezuma, to divert their imaginations, which might otherwise have been employed to his disadvantage.

The prodigious wealth of Montezuma, which enabled him to support the expense of his court, and to keep two large armies always in the field, arose from the salt-works and other taxes established from time immemorial, from the produce of the gold and silver mines, and from the contributions levied on the subject, amounting to one third of the annual produce of that vast and populous empire. These taxes were collected by officers depending on the tribunal of the royal revenue, that resided in the court, and punished the least neglect or fraud with the loss of life.

The young noblemen designed for war were sent as volunteers to the army, to accustom them to the dangers and hardships of a campaign, and were afterwards placed among the baggage-men, and loaded with provisions, to mortify their pride and inure them to fatigue, before they were allowed the honor of being enrolled as soldiers. It has been asserted, as a proof of the grandeur of the Mexican empire, that Montezuma had thirty vassals, each of whom could bring one hundred thousand armed men into the field!

All the towns in the neighborhood of Mexico furnished fuel for the royal palace, and men for the emperor's works. The nobility were obliged to guard his person, to serve in his army with a stipulated number of vassals, and to make him many presents, which, though he received as gifts, they durst not neglect to offer. He had different treasurers for the several kinds of contributions; and the tribunal of the crown-revenue, having issued out what was wanted for the expenses of the war and the royal palaces, converted the rest into ingots of gold.

MOHAMMED BABER.

ZEHIR UL DIEN MOHAMMED BABER, a descendant of Tamerlane, was born A. D. 1481. He became sovereign of the country that had been conquered but not ruled by his great ancestor, and established that powerful monarchy usually termed the Mogul empire, in India. Baber was the grandson of a prince whose dominions comprised the whole of Cabul, Balk, Bokhara, and Samarcand, with several smaller states, which at his death were shared among many sons, one of whom, the father of the young hero in question, inherited a small but beautiful territory called Ferghana, in Independent Tartary, to which Baber succeeded when he was only twelve years of age.

It was not long before he was dispossessed of his inheritance by one of his more powerful relatives, when he sought refuge among the mountain-tribes, and became the youthful leader of a small band of adventurers, who followed him in many a romantic enterprise, and by whose help he made several conquests, which he had not sufficient power to preserve. For some years he led a perilous life, and experienced numerous vicissitudes, sometimes being at the head of a gallant band, sometimes a solitary wanderer destitute of the means of subsistence, and often compelled to hide himself in caves or jungles from the pursuit of his enemies.

At length it happened that the throne of Cabul was seized by a chief who had no claim to it, which afforded Baber an opportunity for attempting to possess it himself, an adventure well suited to his enterprising disposition. Having succeeded in deposing the usurper, he ascended the throne of Cabul in the year 1504; and had reigned over that kingdom twenty-two years, when his attention was drawn toward Hindostan, in consequence of the disturbed state of that country, and the weakness of its government, which was harassed by constant insurrections. The sultan Ibrahim was unpopular; the governors of some of the provinces had thrown off their allegiance, and several of the native chiefs were in rebellion, when Baber marched against Delhi, in 1526, where a battle was fought, in which Ibrahim was slain: and thus ended the last of the Afghan or Patan dynasties, which had occupied the throne of Delhi for three hundred years. The city was immediately surrendered to the conqueror, as was also Agra, which had lately been the royal residence; and the king of Cabul mounted the throne of Delhi, and became the founder of the greatest empire ever established in India.

The very name of Mogul was so distasteful to the Hindu princes, as well as to the Patan omrahs or nobles, that Baber soon found it would be a difficult task to maintain the throne he had won; and, during his brief reign of five years, was constantly engaged in repressing the revolts of the numerous chiefs who united their forces against him. He had therefore but little leisure to organize any regular plan of government; but he succeeded in establishing his authority by several signal victories, and reduced many of the hostile Rajput rulers to subjection: so that, at the time of his death, he was the acknowledged sovereign of nearly all the north of India.

In 1528, Baber fell sick, and was advised to write a poem in praise of one of the saints, Chaja Ahrar, to induce his intercession with God for the recovery of his health. Whatever the monarch thought of the motive, he wrote the poem, probably to beguile the weariness of an eight months' illness. He recovered, but only to be seized soon after with a mortal sickness, of which he died in 1530, at the age of forty-nine.

Baber was one of the most accomplished of the eastern princes, being a poet, historian, and musician, of no ordinary merit; elegant yet free in his manners,



Portrait of Mahommed Baber.—From a miniature painted in India.

easy of access to his subjects, and fond of social enjoyments. He was so enthusiastic an admirer of the beauties of nature, that in the days of his adversity, when closely pursued by his enemies, he would pause in the midst of his flight to gaze on a beautiful landscape, or gather a simple flower; and his heart was so little corrupted by ambition, that amid all his prosperity, his thoughts would often turn to the home of his boyhood, the lovely valley of Ferghana, with all the warmth of youthful affection; and there were moments, perhaps, when he would have given up all his brilliant conquests and his high station, to recover that one beloved spot, which had long since fallen a prey to the Usbek Tartars.

RAPHAEL.

RAPHAEL, or RAFFAELLO SANZIO, DA URBINO, the most celebrated of modern painters, was born at Urbino, in 1483, being the son of a painter named Sanzio. At the age of thirteen his father placed him under Perugino, where he soon surpassed his numerous compeers. Three years afterward he went with Pinturicchio to Siena, to assist him in painting the history of Pius II., for the cathedral there; but Raphael soon left that work to visit Florence, where he improved his style by studying the designs of Da Vinci and Michael Angelo. His favorite artist, however, was Fra Bartolomeo, who gave him a more correct knowledge of coloring.

In 1508, Raphael was invited to Rome by Julius II., who employed him to paint the "School of Athens" in the Vatican. In performing this commission, he gave such satisfaction, that the pope ordered all the pictures, already painted in the various rooms, to be obliterated, and the walls prepared for the productions of Raphael alone, who with difficulty succeeded in saving from destruction a ceiling painted by his old master Perugino. On the accession of Leo X., he prosecuted his labors with increased spirit, and executed his "Attila" and the "Deliverance of St. Peter." The "Cartoons" and the "Transfiguration" were among the last of his labors. The "Cartoons" were his most elaborate compositions. They were patterns for tapestry, representing subjects from the New Testament; and were purchased by Charles I., being now at Hampton court.

To his other talents Raphael added that of being an able architect, the general principles of which science he studied under Bramante, who recommended him for his successor in conducting the great work of St. Peter's, the general plan of which, as it now stands, was designed by Raphael (and carried forward subsequently by Michael Angelo until his death, in 1563). He likewise constructed a number of magnificent buildings, particularly the Caffarelli palace at Rome. As a sculptor also he evinced great skill, though in that department of art he was able to pay but little attention. He enjoyed the patronage and esteem, not only of the popes, but of Francis I. of France, and of other princes. Unfortunately, he was too much given to licentious pleasures, which at last hurried him to an untimely grave, on his birthday, 1520, aged thirty-seven.

Raphael has been justly termed the father of dramatic painting—the painter of humanity. In his conceptions and execution he was almost the antipode of Michael Angelo. Mildness was the great characteristic of his pictures, and beauty of delineation and color seemed to have been his chief study. His style was not so elevating, but far more winning and delusive, than that of his great contemporary. "M. Angelo," says Fuseli, "came to Nature, Nature came to Raphael: he transmitted her features like a lucid glass, unstained, unmodified. We stand with awe before M. Angelo, and tremble at the height to which he elevates us: we embrace Raphael, and follow wherever he leads us."

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MARTIN LUTHER.

MARTIN LUTHER, the great, church reformer, was born Nov. 10, 1483, at Eisleben, in Lower Saxony. At the age of fourteen he was sent to the school of Magdeburg, from which he was removed to Eisenach, and thence to the university of Erfurt, where, in 1503, he received a master's degree, and delivered lectures on the physics and ethics of Aristotle. He was destined by his father for the legal profession; but the impression produced on him by the fate of his friend Alexis, who was struck dead by lightning while walking by his side on their road from Mansfield to Erfurt, uniting with the effect of his early religious education, induced him to devote himself to the monastic life, and he entered the monastery of Augustines, in 1505, submitting patiently to all the penances and humiliations which the superior of the order imposed upon novices. In 1507 he was constituted priest, and in 1508 he was made professor of philosophy in the new university of Wittenberg. In this sphere of action his powerful mind soon showed itself; he threw off the fetters of the scholastic philosophy, asserted the rights of reason, and soon collected a large number of disciples. In 1510, he visited the court of Pope Leo X., at Rome; a journey which revealed to him the irreligion and corruption of the clergy, and de-

stroyed his reverence for the sanctity of the pope. After his return, he became a preacher, and was made doctor in theology. His profound learning, together with the fame of his eloquence, soon made Luther known to the principal scholars, and esteemed as a powerful advocate of the new light which was breaking upon the world. Great, therefore, was the attention excited by his ninety-five propositions, given to the world, October 31, 1517, and intended to put an end to the sale of indulgences by the Dominican Tetzel. They were condemned as heretical; but neither menaces nor persuasions could induce him to recant, and he still maintained the invalidity of indulgences, and of the papal supremacy. In 1520, Luther and his friends were excommunicated, and his writings burnt at Rome, Cologne, and Louvain. Indignant at this open act of hostility, Luther burnt the bull of excommunication and the decretals of the papal canon. Being called upon by many of the German nobility to defend the new doctrine, he presented himself at the diet of Worms, April, 1521, before the emperor, and a vast assemblage of the princes and prelates of Germany. He there made an elaborate defence, and concluded it with these words: "Let me then be refuted and convinced by the testimony of the Scriptures, or by the clearest arguments, otherwise I can not or will not recant; for it is neither safe nor expedient to act against conscience. Here I take my stand; I can do no otherwise, so help me God! Amen." He left Worms, in fact, a conqueror; but it was so manifest that his enemies were determined upon his destruction, that the elector of Saxony conveyed him to the castle of Wartburg, to save his life. In this Patmos, as he called it, Luther remained ten months, and then returned to Wittenberg, where he published a sharp reply to Henry VIII., who had written a book against him, on the seven sacraments. Luther also printed a translation of the New Testament, which greatly alarmed the Romanists, and severe edicts were issued against the reading of it by the princes of that communion. In 1524 he married Catharine de Bora, who had been a nun, by whom he had three sons. In 1529, the emperor assembled another diet at Spire, to check the progress of the new opinions; and here it was that the name of protestants first rose, occasioned by the protest made, on the part of the electoral princes, who were for the Reformation, against the rigorous impositions brought forward in this assembly. After this, the protesting princes determined to have a common confession of faith drawn up; which was accordingly performed by Melancthon, and being presented at the diet of Augsburg, in 1530, was called "The Confession of Augsburg." In 1534, Luther's translation of the whole Bible was published; and the same year he printed a book against the service of the mass. At length, worn out, more by labor than age, this illustrious man died at his native place, Feb. 18, 1546; having lived to see his doctrines take such deep root, that no earthly power could eradicate them.

While Luther was engaged in exposing the abuses in the catholic church in Germany, and arousing the people to the necessity of a reform, a similar movement was transpiring in Switzerland. Foremost in this work was **ULRIC ZWINGLE**, or **Zuinglius**, one of the most enlightened and tolerant of the protestant reformers. He was born at Wilderhausen, in Switzerland, in 1484. In 1516, he was made preacher at Einsiedeln, and in 1518, he became rector of Zurich. He went farther than Luther in the work of reformation, particularly in simplifying the mode of worship, and explaining the doctrine of the eucharist. He showed a spirit far in advance of the age, raising his voice against the corruptions and abuses that had crept into the church, and declaring himself for the use of the Scriptures in their genuine form, without regard to the prescribed texts and lessons. In 1524, he had the gratification of seeing his doctrines adopted by the great council of Zurich, and his influence among the Swiss protestants continued to be powerful during the remainder of his life. Open war having broke out between the catholic and protestant cantons, a battle ensued, in which Zuinglius was among the slain, October 5, 1531.



FERNANDO CORTEZ.

FERNANDO CORTEZ, a descendant of a noble but poor family, was born at Medellin, in the province of Estremadura, Spain, in 1483. The law, to which he was bred at Salamanca, he quitted for a military life. In 1504 he went to St. Domingo, and in 1511 accompanied Velasquez to Cuba, and received from him a grant of land, as a reward for his services.

The conquest of Mexico being resolved upon, Velasquez intrusted Cortez with the command of the enterprise. The expedition, which consisted of ten small vessels, and only seven hundred men, sailed on the 18th of November, 1518; and, on his arrival at Tabasco, Cortez set fire to his ships, that his soldiers might have no other resource than their own valor. With only five hundred men badly armed, and fifteen horses, he defeated the Tlascalans, who presumed to dispute his progress; and after rewarding the hospitality of the inhabitants of Cholula with rapine and slaughter, the conqueror presented himself at the gates of Mexico. He was received with great pomp and every mark of friendship by Montezuma; but though treated with confidence, Cortez acted with duplicity, and, seizing the person of the unsuspecting monarch, he compelled him in the rigor of confinement to acknowledge himself the vassal of the crown of Spain.

Thus absolute in Mexico, Cortez soon heard that Velasquez, jealous of his glory, had sent an expedition, under Narvaez, to bring him back in chains to Cuba; but nowise dismayed at the intelligence, he left one of his officers (Alvarado) governor of the capital, and hastened back to Vera Cruz. With the sagacity of an intrepid soldier he surprised and defeated Narvaez, and by his conciliating conduct he had the art to convert his enemies into friends, and to return to Mexico supported by those who had come to destroy his hopes.

During his absence, Alvarado had been guilty of excesses toward the natives.

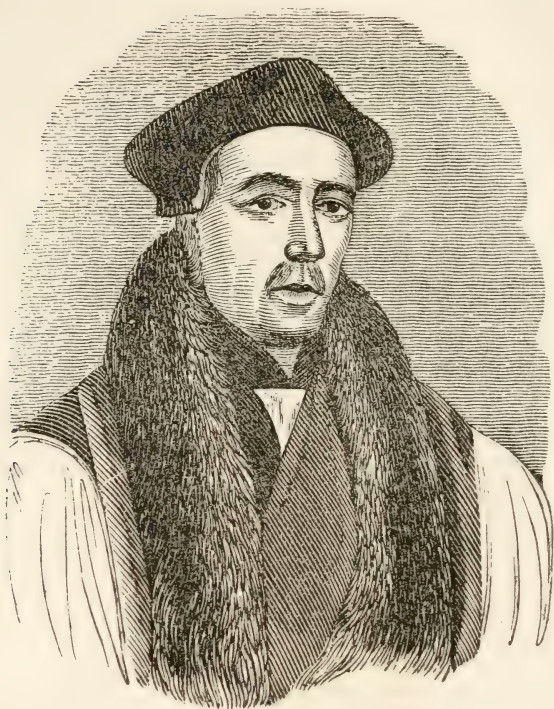
and instead of submission Cortez found the most determined hostility. Unable by force or persuasion to quell the tumult, he caused Montezuma, arrayed in his royal robes, to appear before his incensed subjects, but the Mexicans disregarded the interference of their captive monarch, who during the battle received a mortal wound. Yielding to the storm, the Spaniards retired from Mexico, and though they had lost the half of their little army, they determined on revenge.

On his way toward Tlascala, Cortez was met by a large army of the natives, whom he defeated with dreadful slaughter at Otumba; and after recruiting his forces with five hundred and fifty infantry and forty horses, and a number of allies from Tlascala and other neighboring towns, he marched back to Mexico, December, 1520. The conquest of Texcoco, the second city of the empire, was followed by the siege of Mexico, which the new sovereign Guatimozin, the nephew of Montezuma, a brave prince, ably defended. The artillery of the Spaniards, however, prevailed over the feeble weapons of the Indians; and after three months' resistance, Guatimozin was seized in a canoe as he attempted to escape on the lake, and his captivity was followed by the fall of the capital, and the destruction of the Mexican empire. Above two hundred thousand Indians made their immediate submission to those few bold adventurers; but they were not satisfied with the immense treasures of the plundered city, and the unfortunate monarch was exposed to tortures, that he might confess where the hidden riches of Montezuma were deposited. Guatimozin was shot by his inhumane persecutors, with some of his ministers, on a charge of conspiracy. Master of a populous and opulent empire, Cortez, though cruel and avaricious, began to display the character of a prudent and beneficent governor. Mexico, which had been destroyed during the siege, rose from ruins, and in 1529 assumed the form of the noblest of European cities. In 1536 he commanded in person a fleet which discovered California.

But while these successes enlarged the dominions of Spain, the conqueror was an object of envy at home, and he was soon recalled to give an account of his conduct; and after enduring for a while the resentment of his enemies, he had the good fortune to procure the favor of his sovereign, Charles V., who, while under an impulse of gratitude, made him a grant of new and enlarged powers, creating him governor-general of Mexico, and marquis of Guaxaca; but he subsequently removed him from the governorship.

In order to obtain justice, Cortez in 1540 returned for a second time to Spain; and he accompanied the emperor to Algiers, where he highly distinguished himself. Yet he was unable to procure even an audience. "Who are you?" exclaimed Charles, when Cortez had on one occasion forced his way to the step of the emperor's carriage. "I am the man," replied the undaunted warrior, "who has given you more provinces than your father left you towns!" Cortez died at Seville, in comparative obscurity, on the 2d of December, 1554, aged sixty-nine. Great and heroic as the character of Cortez appears, he deserves the execration of posterity for the cruelties which he exercised on the inoffensive Indians.

The city of Mexico, at the time of Cortez's conquest, contained sixty thousand families. It was divided into two parts, one of which, called Tlatelulco, was inhabited by the meaner sort, while the court and nobility resided in the other, which had the appellation of Mexico, which thence was given to the whole city. It stood in a spacious plain, surrounded by high rocks and mountains, from which many rivulets, falling down into the valley, formed several lakes, and among these were two that extended about thirty leagues in circumference, and were surrounded by fifty towns. In the middle of the lake stood the great city, joined to the main land by three noble causeways. The public buildings and houses of the nobility were of stone.



THOMAS CRANMER.

THOMAS CRANMER, archbishop of Canterbury, whose life is rendered so memorable by the part he took in the Reformation, was born at Aslacton, Nottinghamshire, England, A. D. 1489, and educated at Jesus college, Cambridge. His opinion on the question of Henry VIII.'s divorce from his first wife, Catharine of Arragon, recommended him to that monarch, who employed him to vindicate the measure, and sent him to the foreign universities to obtain their opinion upon the point. On Cranmer's return, the king raised him to the archbishopric of Canterbury, in which office he zealously promoted the cause of the Reformation. Through his means the Bible was translated and read in churches; and he greatly aided in suppressing the monastic institutions. In 1536, when Anne Boleyn was destined to lose her reputation and her life, Cranmer meanly stooped to promote the sentence of divorce. This and other compliances with the monarch's will insured him the gratitude of Henry; who upheld him in all his contests with Bishop Gardiner and others who accused him of heresy and faction. By Henry's will he was appointed one of the council of regency to Edward VI.; and as the young king was brought up chiefly under the archbishop's care it enabled him to further the objects of the Reformation in a regular and consistent manner, by framing the liturgy, the homilies, articles of religion, &c. When Edward was prevailed on to alter the succession in favor of Lady Jane Grey, the archbishop opposed it for a considerable time, but at length consented. On the accession of Mary, he was tried on charges of blasphemy, perjury, incontinence, and heresy, and sen-

tenced to be deprived of office. Tempted, however, by the promise of pardon, he was induced to sign a recantation of his principles, and avow his sorrow for having entertained them. This was the great object of his enemies. But when Cranmer, who had been sent to Oxford, was brought into St. Mary's church to read his recantation in public, instead of doing what was required of him, he besought the forgiveness of God for the apostacy of which he had been guilty, and exhorted the people against the errors of the church of Rome, declaring that nothing could afford him consolation but the prospect of extenuating his guilt by encountering the fiery torments which awaited him. This greatly enraged his adversaries, who, after vilifying him as a hypocrite and heretic, dragged him to the stake opposite Baliol college, which he approached with a cheerful countenance, and met his death with the utmost fortitude, exclaiming, as he held out his right hand for the flames to consume it, "This unworthy hand! this unworthy hand!" thus strikingly proving the remorse he felt at having been induced to sign his recantation. Whatever may be said with regard to his submission to the will of a despotic sovereign, or his occasional unsteadiness of principles, it is certain that no man contributed so much as Cranmer to the establishment and independence of the protestant church in England. His death occurred March 21, 1556.



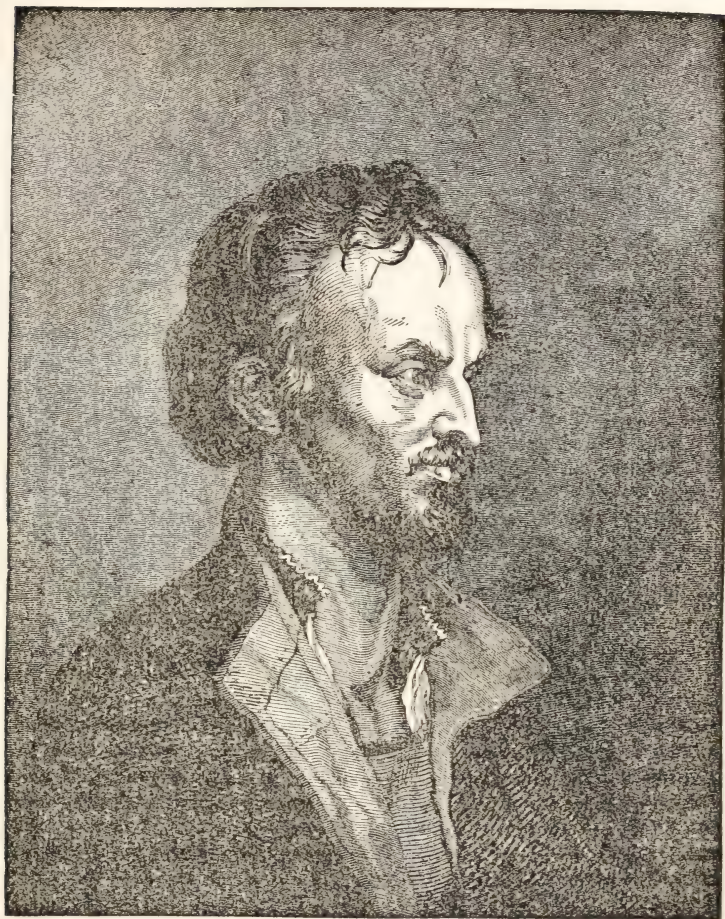
VERAZZANO.

GIOVANNI VERAZZANO, a Florentine, and one of the early adventurers who were attracted to this continent by the discoveries of Columbus, was born about 1490. Francis I., king of France, a powerful monarch, animated also with eager rivalry of Charles V., who derived much lustre from his possessions in the New World, and ardently desirous to follow successfully in the same career, supplied Verazzano with four vessels, with which he set sail for America. After being driven back by a storm, he refitted, and engaged in some successful naval operations upon the Spanish coast; and it was then determined that in

the Dolphin, with fifty men, provisioned for eight months, he should prosecute his original design of discovery.

After a severe tempest, he came, in the middle of March, upon a coast which with great probability, is supposed to be that of North Carolina; and having sailed fifty leagues southward in search of a port without success, he turned again toward the north with the same object. He was once more disappointed as to a harbor; but seeing a fine, populous country, he landed in boats, and held some friendly intercourse with the natives. He next proceeded in an easterly direction along a low coast, where even a boat could not touch; but a sailor swam ashore, and, though alarmed by some strange gestures, found the native kind. A change of course to the northward marks the rounding of Cape Hatteras; and a run of fifty leagues brought him to a fertile region, covered with rich verdure and luxuriant forests. This was Virginia, near the mouth of the Chesapeake, though no mention is made of that great inlet. A sail of one hundred leagues in the same direction led to a spacious bay, receiving a noble river, evidently the Hudson. They ascended it a short way in boats, and were delighted with its banks. The coast then tended eastward; and after following it fifty leagues, they reached an island of pleasing aspect, which, being of a triangular form, and about the size of Rhodes, clearly appears to be that named Martha's Vineyard. The weather prevented his landing; and fifteen leagues farther he found a very convenient port, where he had again much satisfaction in communicating with the people. Although the latitude of forty-one degrees forty minutes be about half a degree too low, it seems impossible not to recognise Boston. He then made a course of one hundred and fifty leagues along a country of similar character, but somewhat more elevated, without landing at any point. Another stretch of fifty leagues, first west, and then north, brought him to a bolder territory (Nova Scotia), covered with dense forests of fir, pine, and other trees of a northern climate. The inhabitants were fiercer, and carried on trade under more jealous precautions. In a subsequent run of the same extent, he discovered thirty small islands, with narrow channels running between them, being such as are known to stud the northern coast of that country and the adjacent one of Cape Breton. Lastly, by sailing about one hundred and fifty leagues farther, he reached, in fifty degrees, the land discovered by the Britons (Newfoundland or Labrador). His stock of provisions being spent, he here took in water, and returned to France.

Verazzano, on the 8th of July, 1524, wrote to the king from Dieppe a narrative of this voyage. Ramusio heard from different quarters that he had submitted to that monarch the plan of a colony; and the general belief is, that he was again employed by him. Mr. Biddle, indeed, urges the improbability that amid the disasters caused by the battle of Pavia in February, 1525, Francis could engage in any such undertaking. Down to that fatal day, however, his career was triumphant; and there was ample time to have authorized another expedition, though there is a total absence of any positive notice on the subject. Ramusio, without mentioning either place or date, states that in his last voyage having landed with some companions, he was killed by the savages in presence of his crew, still on shipboard. In a modern narrative, which, from its full genealogical details, appears to have been furnished by his relatives, Coronelli, an eminent Venetian hydrographer, is quoted, expressing his belief that the catastrophe took place off Cape Breton, in 1525. In the portrait from which our sketch is taken, the inscription positively bears "Died in 1525." It was engraved in 1767, after a picture by Zocchi, in the possession of the family whose opinion is thus decidedly expressed. Yet Tiraboschi has drawn attention to a letter of Annibal Caro, apparently directed to him when living at Florence, in 1537. There seems a mystery round his fate, which can not be unravelled.



PHILIP MELANCTHON.

Among the worthy names that shine so conspicuously in the light of the Reformation of the fifteenth century, we can trace corresponding prototypes in the band of Christ's immediate followers. While in Luther we find the strong and bold characteristics of Peter, and in Zwingli the deep, spiritual, catholic mind of Paul, it may with still more force be said that PHILIP MELANCTHON was moved by that divine love which animated the heart of John, breathing friendship, peace, and good will to all.

Philip Melancthon, Luther's coadjutor, was born February 16, 1497, at Bretten, in the palatinate of the Rhine. His father's name was Schwartzserdt, which signifies black earth; but the word was changed, according to the affectation of the times, by his friend Reuchlin, into Melancthon, which in Greek, expresses the same meaning. He studied at Bretten, Pfortsheim, and Heidelberg, and with such success, that at thirteen, he wrote a comedy of some merit. He left Heidelberg in 1512, because he was refused a degree on account of his youth, and then passed to Tübingen, where he resided for six years, and

gave public lectures on Virgil, Terence, and other classics. In 1518, by the recommendation of his friend Reuchlin, he was appointed by the elector of Saxony, Greek professor at Wittemberg; and here began that intimacy with Luther, which contributed so much to the progress of the Reformation. He was in 1527 appointed by his patron, the duke, to visit the churches of the electorate, and afterward he was employed in the arduous labors of preparing those articles of faith which have received the name of the Augsburg confession, because presented to the emperor at the diet of that city. In the disputes which he maintained in those days of controversial enmity, he displayed great candor and mildness, which his friend Luther attributed more to a spirit of timidity, than to the meekness of the Christian character. His moderation as well as his learning, was so universally acknowledged, that he received a liberal invitation from Francis I., to come to France, to settle the disputes of the protestants; but through the interference of the duke of Saxony, the offer was declined; as likewise a similar invitation from the king of England. He was engaged in the various conferences which took place on religious subjects at Frankfort, Reinsberg, Worms, Spires, and Ratisbon; and everywhere evinced the deepest learning, the most peaceable temper, and the strongest moderation. The character of the times, and not inclination, rendered him a controversialist, and his answer to his mother, displayed the great and the good man. When asked by the aged woman, who repeated before him her prayers in a simple but pious manner, what she must believe in this great confusion of creeds, he said, "Go on, mother, to believe and pray as you have done, and never trouble yourself about controversies." He died at Wittemberg, April 19, 1560, and was buried by the side of his friend Luther, in the church of the castle.

IGNATIUS LOYOLA.

IGNATIUS LOYOLA, founder of the society of Jesuits, was born in 1491, of a noble family, in the Spanish province of Guipuscoa. He was at first in the army, and served with distinguished bravery; but having been severely wounded at the siege of Pampeluna, he beguiled his time with books, and on reading the Lives of the Saints, his imagination became highly excited, and he determined to devote himself from that time to works of piety. He began by making a pilgrimage to Jerusalem; in the hope of converting some of the infidels who were masters of the Holy Land to Christianity, or of gaining the palm of martyrdom in the attempt. Having accomplished this painful and perilous journey, he returned to Spain, more unprovided even than he had left it. In 1526 he went to the university of Alcala, where he found some adherents. The inquisition imprisoned him on the charge of heresy and of being a friend of Luther; and he was not delivered from the prison of the holy office until 1528, when he went to Paris to continue his studies. Here he became acquainted with several Spaniards and Frenchmen, who were afterward noted as his followers, among whom was Francis Xavier, the celebrated missionary to the Indies. They conceived the plan of an order for the conversion of heathens and sinners to the catholic faith; and on Ascension day, in 1534, they united for this great work in the subterranean chapel of the abbey of Montmartre. They then met again in 1536, at Venice, whence they proceeded to Rome, and received the confirmation of their fraternity from Pope Paul III. as "The Society of Jesus." In 1541, Ignatius was chosen general of the society, and all the members swore obedience to him in body and soul. They went forth in bands of three, and their influence was soon felt in all parts of the world. Loyola died July 31, 1556, at the age of sixty-five years. He was canonized in 1622, by Gregory XV. Loyola was of middle stature, of an olive complexion, with a bald head, eyes full of fire, and an aqueline nose. "As Luther was the reformer of the sixteenth century, so was Loyola the evangelist thereof." Teaching that the society was the result of an immediate inspiration from Heaven, he devoted himself to its interests with a discipline, perseverance, enthusiasm, and faith, rarely excelled.



FRANCISCO PIZARRO.

SEVERAL Spanish writers have represented FRANCISCO PIZARRO as a nobleman by birth, while others, with greater appearance of probability, maintain that he was the illegitimate son of Gonzalo Pizarro, an officer at Truxillo, a town in the province of Estremadura in Spain, who suffered him to be exposed as a foundling at the door of a church; but being discovered to be the father, he was compelled to take him under his own care: but he fulfilled the duty of a parent very indifferently, giving him no education, employing him in the most servile offices, and in particular that of keeping his hogs. He was born about 1477.

At length young Pizarro ran away from the herd, and got on board a ship bound for the West Indies, where he so distinguished himself in the wars of Hispaniola and Cuba, that he obtained a commission; and at length sailed with Hojeda to the gulf of Darien, by whom he was left to govern, in his absence, a colony which he had settled there.

After this, he served under Nunez de Balboa, and having acquired a handsome fortune, settled at Panama, on its being first built, and seemed wholly disposed to a life of ease and enjoyment; from which, however, he was diverted by that thirst of riches which almost always attends and increases with the possession of them.

In 1525, the adventurers over whom the enterprising disposition and daring temper of Pizarro had gained him considerable influence, sailed from Panama. Diego Almagro, a man of obscure origin, and Hernandez Lucque, joined him in the command. After many difficulties, the Spaniards arrived in Peru, where they availed themselves of a civil war then raging in that country, and became the allies and eventually the enslavers of Atabaliba, the reigning inca. This

monarch and his court were invited by Pizarro to attend a friendly banquet; while here they were treacherously seized; and the monarch was made to purchase at an enormous price a temporary reprieve from a death which they had determined he should eventually undergo, and after extorting from him, it is said, enough gold and silver to fill a room in the castle of Caxamalca with those metals as high as a common man could reach his hand, he was, after a mock trial for a pretended conspiracy, condemned to be burnt, but was allowed to be first strangled as a reward for becoming a Christian!

The news of Pizarro's success brought a considerable accession of strength from Europe to the invaders; and to consolidate his empire, Pizarro in 1535 founded the city of Lima, which he intended to be the capital of his possessions; but the discord between the chiefs of the expedition, which even a sense of their common danger could not suppress, broke out into open violence, and in the struggle which ensued, Almagro, now seventy-five years old, was defeated, taken prisoner, and strangled, by Ferdinand Pizarro, brother to the general. This catastrophe, which took place in 1537, and the Jespotic course adopted by Pizarro toward the friends of Almagro, led to a conspiracy, which had for its object and resulted in his assassination, four years after the death of Almagro. On Sunday, June 26, 1541, the conspirators, learning that they were discovered, and that Pizarro was taking measures to have them all put to an ignominious death, hastily repaired, to the number of twenty, to the house of young Almagro, son of the murdered chieftain, whence they marched with drawn swords through the market-place toward Pizarro's palace, crying out, "Long live the king, but let the tyrant die!" Though there were at the time a thousand people in the square, they met with no opposition, nor did Pizarro receive the least intelligence of their rising; so that they entered the palace very easily, the doors being open.

When the first news of the disturbance was brought, Pizarro, who was sitting with only two or three of his people, ordered Francis de Chaves, his lieutenant-general, to secure the great door, which he neglected to do, on a supposition that it was only some disturbance among the soldiers, which his presence would easily quell; but on going forward, he met the conspirators on the great staircase, and, demanding the reason of those commotions, was answered by two or three of them lodging their daggers in his bosom, on which he instantly dropped down dead. The marquis, hearing them in the gallery, had no time to put on his armor, but seizing his sword and buckler, defended the door of his apartment very resolutely for a considerable time, supported only by his half-brother Don Francis de Alcantara, and two pages; the rest of his company and servants having fled at the beginning of the insurrection. At length, one of the conspirators pressing home, bore down and killed Don Francis, on which the rest advancing with fresh vigor, the marquis retired before them, and at last sunk down, fainting with loss of blood, and was soon despatched; while his two pages, having desperately wounded several of the conspirators, expired by his side, gallantly fighting in his defence.

Thus fell Don Francisco Pizarro, the first discoverer and conqueror of Peru, aged sixty-four. His body, by young Almagro's permission, was privately buried by his servants, no person of distinction presuming to attend the funeral, lest they should give offence to the prevailing party. The meanness of Pizarro's education was publicly known from his not being able to write his own name, which his secretary used to insert between two strokes which he drew with a pen. He was never married, but had several mistresses, some of whom were daughters and sisters of the incas; yet we do not find that he left any children behind him. He was endowed by nature with some good qualities, the most remarkable of which was his bravery; but his ambition and avarice were boundless, he sacrificed all honor to self-interest, and was excessively cruel.

HERNANDO DE SOTO.

AMONG the many bold and chivalric gentlemen who visited America, early after its discovery by Columbus, the name of Hernando de Soto occupies a prominent place: a man who was by nature well adapted for adventurous enterprise. He possessed great strength of body and vigor of arm, he was patient and persevering, brave as a lion, but courteous and engaging in his manners; his ideas of military discipline were strict, and while the least breach of duty was severely punished, he was always ready to reward the meritorious and deserving.

HERNANDO DE SOTO was born about the year 1501 in Villa Nueva de Barcarota; he was of good family, but poor, all his estate being a sword and buckler. He accompanied Davila, when he came to America to take governorship of Terra Firma, and the merits of De Soto were such, that he had command of a troop of horse given to him, with which he followed Pizarro, in his expedition to Peru. Here he soon signalized himself by a rare combination of prudence and valor; he was excellent in council, yet foremost in every perilous exploit; bravely putting everything at hazard, where any important point was to be gained by intrepidity. Pizarro soon discovered his talents, and appointed him his lieutenant; a master of his weapons, and a perfect horseman, his prowess and adroitness were the admiration of the Spanish soldiery, who declared that his lance alone was equal to any ten in the army.

After distinguishing himself in Peru, De Soto returned to Spain enriched with the spoils of the new world; he now appeared at the court of the emperor Charles V., in magnificent style, and was attended by a knot of brave cavaliers, many of whom had been with him in Peru; he was in the prime of manhood, thirty-six years old, commanding in figure, and of a dark, animated, and expressive countenance. With such advantages of person and reputation he soon succeeded in gaining the affections and hand of a lady of distinguished rank and merit, Isabella de Bobadilla which marriage strengthened his influence at court. About this time the fate of Pamphilo de Narvaez and his followers, who had gone on an expedition to Florida, reached Spain. The imagination of De Soto became excited by the narrative of this expedition; his ambition was roused by the desire of rivalling the fame of Cortez and Pizarro, and his reputation, wealth, past services, and marriage connections, all gave him the means of attaining his wishes. He therefore asked permission of the emperor to undertake the conquest of Florida at his own expense and risk.

His prayer was granted, and being appointed governor-general for life of Florida and Cuba, he sailed on the 6th of April, 1538, with his family and a thousand men, in ten vessels, well supplied with naval stores. He arrived at Cuba about the first of May, and leaving his family there, in a few days sailed for Florida. He landed at Santo Espirito, May 25, and took formal possession in the name of Charles V. De Soto immediately proceeded into the interior; but met with a fierce and harassing opposition from the savages; notwithstanding which, however, he proceed on his course, and the army passed the winter in the province of Appalachee. In the spring of 1540. De Soto continued his route: and in the dominions of the cacique Tuscaloosa, which must have comprised a great part of Alabama and Mississippi, a disastrous battle ensued on the site as it is thought of Mobile: a battle in which forty-two Spaniards were killed and many thousand Indians perished. After this battle the situation of the Spaniards was most deplorable. The army had been much reduced by the march into the interior; most of the soldiers were severely wounded, all were exhausted by fatigue and hunger. The village around them was re-

HERNANDO DE SOTO.



Portrait of Hernando de Soto.

duced to ashes, and all the baggage with the supplies of food and medicine had been consumed in the house. At this time, too, the spirit and ardor of De Soto were damped by the dissatisfaction among his troops: on the 16th of November, he therefore broke up his encampment and turned his face to the northward; after a march of five days he entered the province of Chicazo where he remained through the winter. Early in 1541, the army of De Soto was attacked in the encampment, and although the Indians were driven off and defeated, yet it was with the loss of forty Spaniards with their horses. Three days after this battle, the army moved to a more advantageous position, about a league distant, called Chicacilla; here they spent the rest of the winter, in great suffering from the cold, having lost all their clothing in the late battle.

On the first of April, the army again moved forward until they came in sight of the Mississippi, which they crossed, (probably at the lowest Chickasaw bluff) and came to the village called Casquin or Casqui (Kaskaskias), situated in the province of the same name. The same fortune still awaited the Spaniards, the Indians were constantly attacking them; and though subdued and cut off in great numbers, yet their enmity against the conquerors remained firm and implacable. De Soto, however, continued his march through the province of Palisema, passed through a village called Tanied (Tunicas), and came among a tribe of Tula Indians, and wintered in the village of Utanque. Here their interpreter died, and his death was a severe loss to the service, as throughout the expedition, he had served as the main organ of communication between the Spaniards and the natives. In the spring of 1542, the views of De Soto were changed: his hopes of finding gold regions were disappointed: he had lost nearly half his troops by fighting and hardships of various kinds: the greater part of his horses too had perished, and all had been without shoes for more than a year for the want of iron. He now resolved to return to the Mississippi; select a suitable village on its banks for a fortified post, establish himself there and build two vessels in which some of his most confidential followers might descend the river, carry tidings of his safety to his wife and friends in Cuba, procure reinforcements of men and horses, together with flocks, herds, seeds, and everything else necessary to colonize and secure the possession of the vast and fertile country he had overrun. As soon as the spring was sufficiently advanced, therefore, De Soto broke up his winter cantonment and set out in the direction of the Mississippi; after a time he came to the village of Guachoya, which contained three hundred houses and was situated about a bowshot from the Mississippi in two contiguous hills with a small intervening plain that served as a public square, the whole way fortified with palisades. The inhabitants had fled across the river, but abundance of provision was found in the adjacent country. Here the melancholy which had long preyed upon the spirits of De Soto, the incessant anxiety of mind and fatigue of body, added perhaps to the influence of climate, brought on a slow fever which continued until the seventh day, when he felt convinced that his last hour was at hand. He now made his will, and appointed his successor. When this was done, the dying chief called to him by two and two, and three and three, the most noble of his army and after them he ordered that the soldiery should enter, twenty and twenty, thirty and thirty, and of all of them he took his last farewell. He charged them to convert the natives to the catholic faith, and to augment the power of the crown of Spain. He thanked them for their affection and fidelity to him, and regretted that he could not show his gratitude by rewards such as they merited. He begged forgiveness of all whom he had offended, and finally entreated them, in the most affectionate manner, to be peaceful and loving to one another. Having confessed his sins with much humility, he died like a catholic Christian. His body was placed on the trunk of an evergreen oak, and sunk in the Mississippi river.

SULTAN HUMAYUN.

HUMAYUN, son of Baber, founder of the Tartar dynasty in Hindostan, succeeded to the Mogul throne in India on the death of his father, in 1530. He was a prince of great literary attainments, whose court was celebrated for the number of learned men who there found liberal patronage. Scarcely was he seated on the throne, when his brother, Kamran, who had been invested by his father with the government of Cabul, laid claim to that kingdom as his lawful inheritance; and it was ceded to him, with a large tract of country on the borders of the Indus—by which arrangement Cabul was separated from the crown of Delhi. The new sultan now turned his attention toward recovering some of the states that had formerly belonged to the kings of Delhi, and with that view invaded Guzerat, which for nearly one and a half centuries had been governed by its own independent sovereigns, and was one of the best cultivated and most fertile provinces of Hindostan. But the king of Guzerat obtained the aid of the Portuguese, and the forces of Humayun were driven from the kingdom.

Humayun was soon after at war with several chiefs who were opposed to the Mogul government. The most formidable of these enemies was Shir-khan, an Afghan chief, who had raised a large force in Bengal, and, with all the treachery of the Afghan character, offered to make peace with the sultan; but while the negotiations were pending, suddenly attacked his camp, and put the whole army to flight, while Humayun himself narrowly escaped being made prisoner by swimming across the Ganges on his elephant. A second defeat obliged him to seek safety by a precipitate retreat, accompanied by a few followers and the females of his family. His course lay through the Western district, toward the Indus, where for three days they could not find a drop of water to cool their parched lips, or a single tree to afford a temporary relief from the blazing sun, which no friendly cloud obscured, even for a moment. The appearance of a well, on the fourth day, was hailed with frantic joy; but, in the rush to obtain the first bucket of water that was drawn up, some of the soldiers fell in and were drowned. Among the ladies who accompanied Humayun on this calamitous journey was Hamida, his favorite sultana, and the mother of the great sultan Akber, who was born just as the fugitives had reached the other side of the desert.

It was usual for a father, on the birth of an heir, to distribute presents to those around him; but Humayun, who had nothing to give, broke a pod of musk and scattered its contents among his followers, wishing that the fame of his son might spread around like the odor of that perfume—a prayer in which all present heartily joined; and most amply was the wish accomplished in the brilliant career of one of the greatest princes that ever adorned an eastern throne.

In the meantime, the brothers of the sultan had openly revolted, and Shir-khan had seized on the throne; while, to add to the distresses of this unfortunate sultan, his infant son was carried off from his camp, to serve as a hostage in case of need. Surrounded thus by enemies, and overwhelmed with misfortunes, the unhappy monarch at length sought refuge in Persia, where he was received and magnificently entertained at the court of Shah-Tahmas, the reigning sovereign.

The reign of Shir-khan was a very short one, as he was killed by the accidental explosion of a powder-magazine, about five years after his usurpation. He was succeeded by his son Selim, who reigned in peace nine years; but after his death, his son, a minor, was deposed by one of his uncles, whose bad



Portrait of Humayun Shah.—From a Miniature painted in India.

government occasioned the defection of several chiefs; and again the empire was dismembered, and distracted by civil warfare.

In the meanwhile, Humayun, assisted by the Persian monarch, had been at war with his brother Kamran, from whom he recovered the crown of Cabul, and his little son Akber, then about three years of age. Kamran, after several attempts to regain possession of Cabul, took refuge among the Afghans in the mountains of Khyber, whither he was pursued; and after many adventures, was betrayed into the hands of his brother, who cruelly deprived him of his sight, and sent him to Mecca, where he soon died.

Humayun contented himself with the kingdom of Cabul, until the troubles that arose in Delhi, after the death of Selim, encouraged him to attempt the recovery of his former power. He marched into India, attacked the princes who were at war with each other for the throne, and regained his capitals of Delhi and Agra; but he did not live to follow up these successes, a task that was left to his son Akber, who was but thirteen years old when his father died. In 1556, a few months after his restoration to the throne of Delhi.

JOHN KNOX.

JOHN KNOX, the chief promoter of the Reformation in Scotland, was descended from an ancient family, and born at Gifford, in East Lothian, in 1505. He received his education at the University of St. Andrews, where he took the degree of master of arts much before the usual age. Having embraced the ecclesiastical profession, he began, as usual, with the study of scholastic divinity, in which he so much distinguished himself, that he was admitted into priest's orders before the time appointed by the canons.

He soon became weary of the theology of the schools, and resolved to apply himself to that which was more plain and practical. This alteration of opinion led him to attend the sermons of Thomas Guillaume, or Williams, a friar of eminence, who was so bold as to preach against the pope's authority; and he was still more impressed by the instructions of the celebrated George Wishart, so that he relinquished all thoughts of officiating in the church of Rome, and became tutor to the sons of the lairds of Long Niddrie and Ormistoun, who had embraced the reformed doctrines. Here he preached, not only to his pupils but to the people of the neighborhood, until interrupted by Cardinal Beaton, archbishop of St. Andrews, who obliged him to conceal himself; and he thought of retiring to Germany. The persuasion of the fathers of his pupils, and the assassination of Beaton by the Leslies, encouraged him to remain. He took shelter, under the protection of the latter, in the castle of St. Andrews, where, notwithstanding the opposition of the clergy of St. Andrews, he preached the principles of the Reformation with extraordinary boldness, until the castle of St. Andrews surrendered to the French, in July, 1547, when he was carried with the garrison into France, and remained a prisoner on board the galleys until the latter end of 1549. Being then set at liberty, he passed over to England, and, arriving in London, was licensed, by either Cranmer or the protector Somerset, and appointed preacher, first at Berwick, and afterward at Newcastle.

In 1552, he was appointed chaplain to Edward VI., and preached before the king at Westminster, who recommended Cranmer to give him the living of All-hallows, in London, which Knox declined, not choosing to conform to the English liturgy. It is said that he refused a bishopric, regarding all prelacy as savoring of the kingdom of anti-Christ. He, however, continued his prac-

tice as an itinerary preacher, until the accession of Mary, in 1554, when he quitted England, and sought refuge at Geneva, where he had not long resided before he was invited, by the English congregation of refugees at Frankfort, to become their minister. He unwillingly accepted this invitation, at the request of John Calvin, and continued his services until embroiled in a dispute with Doctor Cox, afterward bishop of Ely, who strenuously contended for the liturgy of King Edward. Knox, in his usual style of bold vituperation, having, in a treatise published in England, called the emperor of Germany as great an enemy to Christ as Nero, his opponents accused him to the senate of treason, against both the emperor and Queen Mary; on which he received private notice of his danger, and again retired to Geneva, whence, after a residence of a few months, he ventured, in 1555, to pay a visit to his native country.

Finding the professors of the protestant religion greatly increased in number, and formed into a society under the inspection of regular teachers, Knox finally joined them, and produced so great an effect by his exertions, in both Edinburgh and other places, that the Roman catholic clergy, alarmed at his progress, summoned him to appear before them in the church of the Blackfriars, in that metropolis, May 15, 1556. This summons he purposed to obey, resting on the support of a formidable party of nobles and gentry, which so alarmed his opponents, that they dropped the prosecution. Thus encouraged, he continued preaching with additional energy and boldness, and was even induced to write to the queen-regent, Mary of Lorraine, a letter, in which he earnestly exhorted her to listen to the protestant doctrines.

While thus occupied, Knox was strongly urged to pay a visit to the English congregation at Geneva, and he accordingly departed for that place in July, 1556. He was no sooner gone, than the bishops summoned him to appear before them; and, as that was impossible, they passed sentence of death against him as a heretic, and burnt him in effigy at the cross at Edinburgh. Against the sentence he drew up an energetic appeal, which was printed at Geneva, in 1558, previously to which he was invited to return to Scotland, and had actually reached Dieppe on his way, when he received another letter, recommending delay; which epistles he answered by such strong remonstrances against timidity and backsliding, that those to whom he addressed them entered into a solemn bond or covenant, dated December 3, 1557, that "they would follow forth their purpose, and commit themselves, and whatever God had given them, into his hands, rather than suffer idolatry to reign, and the subjects to be defrauded of the only food of their souls."

Knox, in the meantime, had returned to Geneva, where he published his treatise entitled "The First Blast of the Trumpet against the monstrous Regiment of Women, chiefly aimed at the cruel government of Queen Mary of England, and at the Attempt of the Queen-Regent of Scotland to rule without a Parliament." A "Second Blast" was to have followed; but the accession of Queen Elizabeth to the throne of England, who was expected to be friendly to the protestant cause, prevented it.

In April, 1559, Knox would have visited England, but was prevented by the resentment felt by Elizabeth at his late treatise. He therefore proceeded directly to Scotland, where he found a persecution of the protestants just ready to commence at Stirling. He hurried to the scene of action to share the danger, and, mounting a pulpit, inflamed the people by a vehement harangue against idolatry. The indiscretion of a priest, who, immediately on the conclusion of this discourse, was preparing to celebrate mass, precipitated his hearers into a general attack on the churches of the city, in which the altars were overturned, the pictures destroyed, the images broken, and the monasteries almost levelled to the ground. These proceedings were censured by the reformed preachers, and by the leaders of the party.



Monument to John Knox, Glasgow.

From this time, Knox continued to promote the Reformation by every means in his power ; and, by his correspondence with the secretary Cecil, was chiefly instrumental in establishing the negotiation between the congregation and the English, which terminated in the march of an English army into Scotland. Being joined by almost all the chief men of the country, these forces soon obliged the French troops, who had been the principal support of the regent, to quit the kingdom, and the parliament was restored to its former independence. Of that body, the majority had embraced protestant opinions, and no opportunity was omitted of assailing the ancient religion ; until at length the presbyterian plan, recommended by Knox and his brethren, was finally sanctioned, the old ecclesiastical courts being abolished, and the exercise of religious worship, according to the rites of the Romish church, prohibited.

In August, 1561, the unfortunate Mary, then widow of Francis II., king of France, arrived in Scotland to reign in her own right. She immediately set up a mass in the royal chapel, which being much frequented, excited the zeal of Knox, who was equally intolerant with the leaders of the conquered party ; and, in the face of an order of the privy council, allowing the private mass, he openly declared from the pulpit that "one mass was more frightful to him than ten thousand armed enemies landed in any part of the realm." This freedom gave great offence, and the queen had long and angry conferences with him on that and other occasions, in which he never paid the slightest homage to either sex or rank. He preached with equal openness against the marriage of Mary with a papist ; and Darnley, after his union, being induced to hear him, he observed, in the course of his sermon, that "God set over them, for their offences and ingratitude, boys and women."

In the year 1567, he preached a sermon at the coronation of James VI. (the son of Mary, and afterward James I. of England), when Mary had been dethroned, and Murray appointed regent. In 1572, he was greatly offended with a convention of ministers at Leith, for permitting the titles of "archbishop" and "bishop" to remain during the king's minority, although he approved of the regulations adopted in reference to their elections. At this time his constitution was quite broken, and he received an additional shock by the news of the massacre of St. Bartholomew. He had, however, strength enough to preach against it, which he desired the French ambassador might be acquainted with, but soon after took to his bed, and died, November 24, 1572. He was interred at Edinburgh, several lords attending, and particularly the earl of Morton, that day chosen regent, who, when he was laid in his grave, exclaimed : "There lies he who never feared the face of man, who hath been often threatened with dag and dagger, but yet hath ended his days in peace and honor ; for he had God's providence watching over him in an especial manner when his life was sought."

The character of this eminent reformer has been sketched by Dr. Robertson, in his "History of Scotland," who, in remarking upon the severity of his deportment, impetuosity of temper, and zealous intolerance, observes that "the qualities which now render him less amiable, fitted him to advance the Reformation among a fierce people, and enabled him to encounter dangers and surmount opposition to which a more gentle spirit would have yielded. John Knox was a man of exalted principles, great intellectual energy, undaunted intrepidity, and exemplary piety and morality." He was twice married, and had two sons by his first wife.

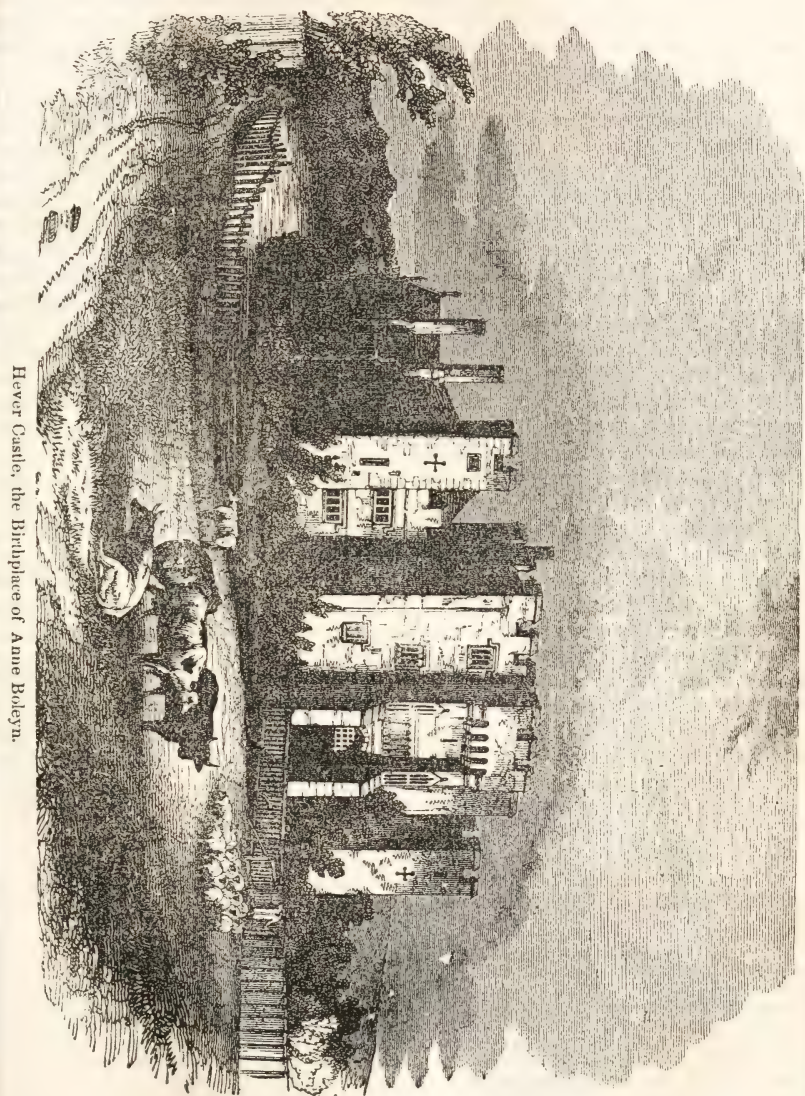
The monument to Knox, a view of which is given on the opposite page, was erected by private subscription, in the necropolis, opposite the cathedral, Glasgow. The statue of Knox, by which it is surmounted, says Chambers, "seems like the spirit of the reformer come back to inveigh, with outstretched arm, against the cathedral, and, if possible, to complete the work which he left unfinished at his death."



ANNE BOLEYN.

ANNE BOLEYN, daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, and known in English history as the wife of Henry VIII., and as the occasion of the Reformation, was born at Hever castle, in the county of Kent, England, in the year 1507. She went to France in the seventh year of her age, and was one of the attendants of the English princess, wife to Louis XII., and afterward to Claudia, the wife of Francis I., and then of the duchess of Alençon. About 1525, she returned to England, and was at Hever castle when she received an intimation from her father of his successful endeavors to have his daughter placed under Queen Catherine. Her reply in French is still extant. She went to court shortly afterward, at the age of little more than twenty, and soon excited the susceptible feelings of the king. Wolsey's policy was to exclude from the royal presence any one whom Henry was likely to regard with too much favor, and Anne, after a short absence, returned to Hever, unconscious, it is said, of the king's regard for her.

Again recalled to court, Anne soon after, between the months of July and October, 1527, received from Henry himself a declaration of his attachment. In May, 1528, she was at Hever, and received letters from the king, and he appears to have visited her there, and to have prevailed upon her to return to court, a determination which she subsequently changed. Henry's letters to Anne during this period are manly, sensible, and tender, and six years' anxiety respecting his divorce with Catherine kept alive his affections, which might otherwise have cooled. It was not until January 25, 1533, that his marriage with



Hever Castle, the Birthplace of Anne Boleyn.

Anne took place. Cardinal Wolsey* had in the meantime lost the confidence of Henry, been stripped of his honors, and died with a charge of high treason hanging over him. On the 1st of June, Anne was crowned; September 7th, she had a daughter, afterward Queen Elizabeth. In little more than three years, the picture is reversed. On the 1st of May, 1536, the queen was suddenly arrested and examined, and on the day following sent to the Tower; her trial followed on the 15th of the same month, and on the 19th she was executed at the age of twenty-nine, the very prime of womanhood, after having once been the object of the romantic affection of her sovereign.

A tourist thus speaks of Hever castle, an engraving of which is on p. 121 : "The court is neatly paved with red bricks fancifully disposed. The fronts of the house are stuccoed, but were formerly richly embossed, and painted with quaint patterns. The entrance to the apartment is usually made by the back-front, through what was once the great dining-hall, but which is now used as a kitchen. This is a most interesting place, very spacious, being ninety feet by thirty : it contains many fine specimens of old tables, safes, presses, &c., part of the original 'Bullen' furniture. The walls appear formerly to have been covered with arms, and decorated with antlers and other memorials of the chase. Here I found several of the farmer's servants seated at one of the long tables, making havoc with a mutton-pudding of enormous size, rivalled by a huge trencher of turnip-tops. A bulky apple-pudding was also in waiting. From this apartment I was conducted to the grand staircase, a very tawdry affair, utterly out of character with the rest of the building, and furnished with some execrable pictures—one of them, a portrait, apparently of Cooke as Richard III. I was told by the attendant it represented the cruel Henry VIII. himself. Leaving the staircase, several small anterooms are passed, panelled throughout with oak, and at length a door is reached at which the guide pauses, and with much solemnity announces the threshold of Anne Boleyn's bedroom! This is really an interesting apartment, beautifully panelled, and contains the original family chairs, tables, muniment-box, and Anne's bed, a very heavy affair, dressed with yellow damask hangings. A door in one of the corners opens into a strong, dark cell, in which the girl told me Anne was imprisoned by Henry, and where by his order it was attempted to starve her to death. 'They opened the door,' she said, 'and finding her not quite dead, were afraid, and took her to London, and cut her head off.' The cell was probably a sort of strong cupboard for plate and valuables. In this apartment, several anterooms succeed, and the suite terminates in a grand gallery occupying the whole length of the building, in which the judicial meetings and social gatherings of the ancient family were held."

* THOMAS WOLSEY, the celebrated cardinal and minister of state under Henry VIII., was the son of a butcher at Ipswich, in Suffolk, and born there in 1471. After finishing his education at Oxford, he became tutor to the sons of the marquis of Dorset; was subsequently domestic chaplain to the archbishop of Canterbury; and, on going to court, he gained the favor of Henry VII., who sent him on an embassy to the emperor, and on his return made him dean of Lincoln. Henry VIII. gave him the living of Torrington, in Devon, and afterward appointed him register of the garter and canon of Windsor. He next obtained the deanery of York, and attending the king to Tournay, in France, was made bishop of that city. In 1514, he was advanced to the see of Lincoln, and the year following to the archbishopric of York. Insatiable in the pursuit of emolument, he obtained the administration of the see of Bath and Wells, and the temporalities of the abbey of St. Alban's, soon after which he enjoyed in succession the rich bishoprics of Durham and Winchester. By these means, his revenues nearly equalled those of the crown, part of which he spent in pomp and ostentation, and part in laudable munificence for the advancement of learning. He founded several lectures at Oxford, where he also erected the college of Christ church, and built a palace at Hampton court which he presented to the king. He was at this time in the zenith of power, and had a complete ascendancy over the mind of Henry, who made him lord-chancellor, and obtained for him a cardinalship. He was nominated the pope's legate; but having given offence to the king, by not promoting his divorce, he fell into disgrace, and his property was confiscated. In 1530 he was apprehended at York, but was taken ill, and died on his way to London, exclaiming, "Had I but served my God, as faithfully as I have served my king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs."



JOHN CALVIN.

OF the many illustrious names for which the sixteenth century is distinguished none have left a more enduring record of their influence on the history of the world than JOHN CALVIN, who was born on the 10th of July, 1509, at Noyon, in Picardy, France. His father Geraud Cauvin (or Caulvin), was a man of sound judgment, who held several important offices in the town, and was highly esteemed among the principal families of the province. Unlike the reformers of Germany and Switzerland, who passed their earlier years amid penury and hardships, young Calvin was nourished with tenderness and care. Having attracted the attention of the noble family of Mommor, he was received under their protection and sent to the college of the Capettes, in his native town, with the design of fitting for the church, and before he was twelve years of age a chaplaincy in the cathedral of Noyon was conferred on him, to which, in less than five years was added the cure of Monteville, though at that time he had not received holy orders. A pestilence visiting the place about two years afterward, he repaired to the college of Le Marche at Paris, and continued his studies under the celebrated Corderius; here he laid the foundation of that pure and vigorous Latin style, for which his writings excel.

His father, now changed his mind as to the profession of his son and desired him to relinquish the study of theology for that of jurisprudence, as the most certain road to wealth and honor. Calvin did not, however, altogether abandon the ecclesiastical preferment which he had obtained, as in 1529 he exchanged the living at Monteville for that of Pont l'Evêque, where he occasionally preached. In compliance with his father's wishes Calvin repaired to the university of

Orleans, where he studied law under Peter Stella, afterward president of the parliament of Paris, and the most distinguished lawyer of France. Here he devoted himself assiduously to his studies, which so impaired his health that he never entirely recovered it. Such was his reputation, that he was frequently called upon in the absence of the professors, to lecture in their stead, and when he left Orleans the degree of doctor was by unanimous consent conferred upon him without the usual fee. The high position he had attained as early as 1530, is illustrated by the fact that his opinion was requested on the subject of Henry VIII.'s divorce when that question was submitted to the universities and learned men of Europe for their decision as to its lawfulness. Leaving Orleans he visited the university of Bourges, the most renowned law-school in France; and the instruction he received from the famous Italian jurisconsult André Alciat was of great benefit to him, when called to assume the part of lawgiver in the republic of Geneva. He also acquired a knowledge of the Greek language under the tuition of Milchior Wolmar, a reformer. Here his mind underwent a change most important to his future character; he adopted the principles of the reformers, and began to preach in favor of their doctrines.

His father having died in 1532, Calvin abandoned the study of the law, and returned to Paris where he devoted himself to the study of theology, and began his career as a reformer. His first religious work was published at Paris during this year. He also attacked some of the doctrines of the catholic church in his discourses, which brought upon him the indignation of the sorbonne and parliament, and he was compelled to flee from Paris. He returned to Noyon, but remained there only long enough to dispose of his chaplaincy and resign his living of Pont l'Evêque. Calvin went to several places, and at length to Angoulême, where he was sheltered in the house of Louis du Follet, a canon of Angoulême, and supported himself some time there by teaching Greek. It was here he composed the greater part of his "Institutes of the Christian Religion." Margaret, queen of Navarre, sister of Francis I., who was inclined to favor the reformers, having shown him some countenance in respect of his learning and abilities, and also for his sufferings, he returned to Paris, in the year 1534, under her protection; but persecution being again threatened, he quitted France the same year, having first published a work, entitled "*Psychopannychia*," to confute errors in regard to the resurrection. He retired to Basil in Switzerland where he became personally acquainted with several of the leading German reformers. Calvin now published his "Institutes" which he dedicated to Francis I., in an elegant Latin epistle. The design of the Institutes was to exhibit a full view of the doctrines of the reformers; and as no similar work had appeared since the Reformation, and the peculiarities of the Romish church were attacked in it with great force and vigor, it immediately became highly popular. It soon went through several editions; it was translated by Calvin himself into French, and has since been translated into all the principal modern languages. Its effect upon the Christian world has been so remarkable, as to entitle it to be looked upon as one of those books that have changed the face of society. Calvin was only twenty-six years of age when this great work was published, and yet so carefully had his religious doctrines been matured, that though he greatly expanded his views he never varied from the principles first propounded. Calvin soon after visited Italy, and was received with marked distinction by the learned duchess of Ferrara, daughter of Louis XII., and the reformers generally. He returned to Noyon, intending to go to Basil or Strasburg, but was forced, in consequence of the road through Lorraine being closed by the army of Charles V., to alter his course and pass through Savoy to Geneva, where he arrived in the month of August, 1536. This slight circumstance probably changed the current of his subsequent life.

The reformed religion having been publicly established the above-named year

in Geneva, at the urgent request of Farel, Biret, and other eminent reformers, by whom the revolution had been achieved, Calvin here became a preacher, and also professor of divinity. Farel who was at this time the most distinguished person in the place, for his learning, virtue, and zeal, quickly appreciated the same qualities in Calvin, and they united their efforts for the complete reformation of Geneva, and the diffusion of its principles throughout Europe. They formed a plan of church government, and confession of faith, which were laid before the public authorities for approval, in November, and in the month of July following, received the sanction of the people. The same year the council of Geneva conferred on Farel the honor of a burgess of the city, in token of their respect and gratitude. But the popular will was not prepared for the severe discipline of the reformers, and in a short time the people resisted some innovations on their religious practices, and, under the direction of a faction, met in a public assembly and expelled Farel and Calvin from the place. Calvin repaired to Berne, and then to Strasburg, where he was appointed professor of divinity and minister of a French church, into which he introduced his own form of church government and discipline. In his absence, great efforts were made to get the Genevese to return to the communion of the church of Rome, particularly by Cardinal Sadolet, who wrote to them earnestly to that effect; but Calvin, ever alive to the maintenance of the principles of the Reformation, disappointed all the expectations of his enemies, and confirmed the Genevese in the new faith, addressing to them two powerful and affectionate letters, and replying to that written by Sadolet. While at Strasburg also, Calvin published a treatise on the Lord's Supper, in which he combated the opinions of both the Roman catholics and Lutherans, and at the same time explained his own views of that ordinance. Here, too, he published his "Commentary on the Epistle to the Romans." It was during his stay in this city that he married Idellet, the widow of an anabaptist preacher.

In October, 1540, he and Farel were solicited by the council of Geneva to return to their former charge in that city: in May, 1541, their banishment was revoked; and in September following Calvin was received into the city amidst the congratulations of his flock, Farel remaining at Neufchâtel, where he was loved and respected. Calvin did not trifle in the peculiarly favorable circumstances in which he was now placed. He immediately laid before the council his scheme of church government, and after it was adopted and published by authority, which was on the 20th November, 1541, he was unhesitating in its enforcement. His promptitude and firmness were now conspicuous; he was the ruling spirit in Geneva; and the church which he had established there he wished to make the mother and seminary of all the reformed churches. His personal labors were increasing; he preached every day for two weeks of each month; he gave three lessons in divinity every week; he assisted at all the deliberations of the consistory and company of pastors; he defended the principles of the Reformation against all who attacked them; he explained those principles in both writing and discourse; and maintained a correspondence with every part of Europe. Geneva, however, was the common centre of all his exertions, and its prosperity peculiarly interested him, though less for its own sake than to make it a fountain for the supply of the world: he established an academy there, the high character of which was long maintained; he made the city a literary mart, and encouraged all the French refugees and others who sought his advice to apply themselves to the occupation of a printer or librarian; and having finished the ecclesiastical regimen, he directed his attention to the improvement of the municipal government of the place.

That some of the acts of Calvin should show marks of intolerance is not surprising, when we consider the notions of civil and religious liberty prevailing at that time, and the many efforts made to overthrow his authority. His

conduct to Servetus has attracted the most attention: it has been severely condemned by many, and as strongly defended by others, even by the mild Melancthon. Servetus had been guilty not only of heresy on the doctrine of the trinity, but of an attempt to overthrow the civil authority; and though Calvin's influence might have saved him from the stake had he interposed, yet he allowed the magistrates to execute their sentence without opposition. In 1554, Calvin published a work in defence of the doctrine of the trinity against the errors of Servetus, and to prove the right of the civil magistrate to punish heresy. Of all the testimonies to the merits of Calvin at this time, the most unsuspected is that of the canons of Noyon, who, in 1556, publicly returned thanks to God on occasion of his recovery from an illness which it was thought would prove mortal. It was no doubt the state of Calvin's health which prevented him going in 1561 to the famous Conference of Poissy; nothing but his many pains and infirmities, as it appears from his correspondence with Beza, who was sent to the conference from Geneva, would have prevented him attending an assembly which promised to be of so much consequence, and which was indeed remarkable in this respect, that from that time the followers of Calvin became known as a distinct sect, bearing the name of their leader. Amidst all his sufferings, however, neither his public functions nor his literary labors ceased; he continued to edify the church of Geneva by his sermons and his intercourse among the people, and to instruct Europe by his works; and to the last he maintained the same firmness of character which had distinguished him through life. On his death-bed he took God to witness that he had preached the gospel purely, and exhorted all about him to walk worthy of the divine goodness; his delicate frame gradually became quite emaciated, and on the 27th May, 1564, he died without a struggle, in the fifty-fifth year of his age.

Theodore Beza, a personal friend of Calvin, has given a fine summary of his character, from which we here quote: "Calvin was not of large stature; his complexion was pale, and rather brown; even to his last moments his eyes were peculiarly bright, and indicative of his penetrating genius. He knew nothing of luxury in his outward life, but was fond of the greatest neatness, as became his thorough simplicity; his manner of living was so arranged, that he showed himself equally averse to extravagance and parsimony; he took so little nourishment, such being the weakness of his stomach, that for many years he contented himself with one meal a day. Of sleep he had almost none; his memory was incredible; he immediately recognised, after many years, those whom he had once seen; and when he had been interrupted for several hours, in some work about which he was employed, he could immediately resume and continue it, without reading again what he had before written. His judgment was so acute and correct in regard to the most opposite concerns about which his advice was asked, that he often seemed to possess the gift of looking into the future. He despised fine speaking, and was rather abrupt in his language; but he wrote admirably, and no theologian of his time expressed himself so clearly, so impressively and acutely as he. Although nature had endowed Calvin with a dignified seriousness, in both manner and character, no one was more agreeable than he in ordinary conversation. An enemy to all flattery, he hated dissimulation, especially every dishonest sentiment in reference to religion; he was therefore as powerful and stormy an enemy to vices of this kind, as he was a devoted friend to truth, simplicity, and uprightness. His temperament was naturally choleric, and his active public life had tended greatly to increase this failing; but the Spirit of God had taught him so to moderate his anger, that no word ever escaped him unworthy of a righteous man. It was only, when the question concerned religion, and when he had to contend against hardened sinners, that he allowed himself to be moved and excited beyond the bounds of moderation."



PETER PAUL RUBENS.

PETER PAUL RUBENS was, according to one account, a native of Antwerp, but others say, that his father being under the necessity of removing to Cologne, to avoid the calamities of civil war, his son was born there in 1577. His family was honorable, and gave him a very liberal education. Discovering an early turn for painting, he was placed under Tobias Vestraecht, an artist who excelled in landscape and architecture, at Antwerp; but in a short time Rubens left him, to become a scholar of Adam Van Oort, from whom, on account of his morose temper, he soon parted. He then attached himself to Otho Venius, or Octavio Van Veen, who was a man of learning, an accomplished artist, and of an amiable disposition. From this preceptor, Rubens acquired that taste for allegory which distinguished him so remarkably through life, though it certainly did not constitute his highest merit. After continuing with this instructor four years, he was told very candidly by Venius, that he could teach him no more, and that nothing remained for his improvement but a journey to Italy. This was agreeable to the wish of Rubens; but of the means by which he accomplished it, different accounts have been given. Sandrart, who was intimately acquainted with Rubens, and accompanied him when he travelled through Holland, tells us that the Archduke Albert, governor of the Netherlands, conceived so high an opinion of him, from the accounts he had received of his superior talents, that he engaged him in his service, employed him to paint several fine designs for his own palace; and recommended him in the most honorable manner to the duke of Mantua, that in his court he might have constant access to an admirable collection of paintings and antique statues, and thus have an opportunity

of improving himself by studying, as well as copying, the former, and designing after the latter. On his arrival at Mantua, he was received with a degree of distinction worthy of his merit; and while he continued there, added considerably to his knowledge, though he attached himself in a more particular manner to the style of coloring peculiar to the Venetian school. On leaving Mantua he went to Rome, Venice, and other cities of Italy, and studied the works of the greatest painters, from the time of Raphael to his own; and accomplished himself in coloring, by the observations he made on the style of Titian, and of Paolo Veronese. However, he neglected to refine his taste as much as he ought, by the antiques, though most of the memorable artists in painting had sublimed their own ideas of grace, expression, elegant simplicity, beautiful proportion, and nature, principally by making them their perpetual study and models. On his return to Mantua, he painted three magnificent pictures for the church of the Jesuits, which, in point of execution, freedom, and force of effect, rank among his best productions. The duke of Mantua being desirous of having copies of some of the most celebrated pictures at Rome, sent Rubens thither for that purpose, by which commission he not only added to his reputation, but to his improvement. In 1605, his patron employed him on an embassy to the court of Spain, where he painted the picture of Philip the Third, and received from that monarch the most flattering marks of distinction. On the death of his mother, he formed the design of settling in Italy; but at the earnest request of the Archduke Albert, he returned to Antwerp, where he married, and built a splendid mansion, which he furnished with numerous antiques, and pictures. His great popularity naturally created enemies, the principal of whom were Abraham Janssens, Schut, and Rombouts. The first of these challenged Rubens to a trial of skill; but he answered, that he would contend with him when Janssens should show himself worthy of the honor. With respect to the others, all the return he made them for their abuse was by giving them employment, and relieving their necessities. In 1620, Rubens received a commission from Mary de Medicis, to adorn the gallery of the Luxembourg with a series of paintings, illustrating the principal events in her own history. These admired performances he completed in three years: soon after which he became acquainted with George Villiers, duke of Buckingham, who gave him ten thousand pounds for his museum of antiques and paintings. In 1628, Rubens was sent by the Archduchess Isabella on a political mission to Madrid, where he performed the part of a diplomatist with as much skill as that of an artist. The duke d'Olivares had just founded a convent of Carmelites, at Loeches, near Madrid: and the king, as a mark of favor to that minister, directed Rubens to paint four pictures for the church, which he executed in his grandest style, and the richest glow of coloring. He also painted eight grand pictures for the palace at Madrid. In 1629, he returned to Flanders, and the same year was sent on another political mission to England. While there, Charles I. engaged him to paint the apotheosis of his father, in the banqueting-house of Whitehall; for which he received three thousand pounds. He also painted Charles in the character of St. George, and Henrietta Maria as Cleodelinde; with Richmond and the Thames in the distance. For these works he was knighted, on the 21st of February, 1630. Rubens having accomplished the object for which he had been sent to the English court, returned to the Netherlands, and was received with all the honors due to his extraordinary services. He had now attained his fifty-eighth year, when he was attacked with violent fits of the gout, which obliged him to abandon large works, and confine his pencil to easel pictures. Yet he continued to practise his art, and to instruct pupils, until his death, in 1640. He was buried with great funeral pomp, in the church of St. James, at Antwerp, where his widow and children erected a monument to his memory.



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

ELIZABETH, queen of England, and one of its most celebrated sovereigns, was born September 7, 1533. She was the daughter of Henry VIII. by his second wife, Anne Boleyn. She was educated in the principles of the reformed religion, and her early years were passed in privacy, a measure rendered necessary by the jealousy of her catholic sister Mary, who finally caused her to be arrested in 1554, and confined to the Tower on a false charge of treason, but her life was saved by the interposition of Philip, the husband of Mary, and she was removed to Woodstock.

On the death of Mary, November 17, 1558, Elizabeth was drawn from her obscurity and proclaimed queen, being received with acclamation by the people. Notwithstanding the security with which she appeared to possess the throne, she did not until some time after her accession decidedly express her intentions

with respect to the national religion. She commenced her reign with that caution and ambiguity of purpose which characterized her future proceedings, and which on the present occasion left it for some time a matter of uncertainty whether she would tolerate the existing religious establishment, or, in conformity with her own principles, favor the measures of the protestant reformers. Thus at her coronation (January 15, 1559) she forbade the customary elevation of the Host, and refused to hear mass in public; yet it was known that she kept a crucifix and some holy water in her private chapel; and when the protestants waited on her with their petitions, she returned ambiguous and almost negative answers. The hopes which the protestants had conceived from the education of the queen were, although delayed by her ambiguous manner, at length, however, realized by the queen expressing her sentiments in favor of the protestant principles, but leaving the question of the national religion to be decided by her parliament, which met in January, 1559, and which, willing to adapt itself to her wishes, restored the reformed religion throughout the country.

They did not however stop here, but interdicted the practice of the catholic forms of worship, and although fires were not resorted to, as in Mary's reign, fines and imprisonment were carried to the utmost extent of severity. Although the violence thus manifested toward the catholics can not be defended, it was owing perhaps more to the instigation of the protestant clergy, than to the queen herself, who wished to conciliate all classes of her subjects. She commenced her reign with great prudence, and if she displayed some of that spirit of despotism which she inherited from her father, her measures were characterized by great wisdom and with a view to great national objects. By her frugality she was soon enabled to pay off the great debts of the crown, and to regulate the coinage, which had been debased by her predecessors. She made large purchases of arms on the continent: she introduced or greatly improved the arts of making gunpowder and casting cannon; and, what was of foremost importance, she directed her energies to the increase of the naval force, so that she was soon justly entitled to the appellations of "Restorer of Naval Glory; Queen of the Northern Seas." She died March 24, 1603, at the age of seventy, having reigned over forty years. In person, Elizabeth was graceful, in stature majestic, and in mien noble. Her features were not regular, but her eyes were lively and sparkling, and her complexion fair. Her strong natural capacity was improved by the most enlarged educational facilities attainable in those days, into which it was customary to initiate females of distinction; and she had acquired several languages before she was seventeen, and was well versed in the departments of literature, theology, science, and the arts.

One of the most extraordinary traits of Elizabeth's character was her avowed resolution of remaining single, a resolution which she kept, and which, in spite of her conduct in the negotiation of several offers of marriage from foreign princes, she appears to have always intended to keep. That she was not, however, free from the vanities and jealousies of womankind, many events of her life sufficiently prove, the most glaring of which is her persecution of the unfortunate Mary, queen of Scots, which must partly be ascribed to other than political feelings. Her treatment of the queen of Scots can never be defended, and the feigned sorrow of Elizabeth, and the attempts to shift the odium of the death of her unfortunate rival from herself to others, have injured her memory more perhaps than the deed itself. It must not be forgotten, however, that if in some things Elizabeth is to be blamed, the general character of her administration, and the high state of prosperity to which the kingdom attained under her auspices, render her reign one of the most celebrated in English history. Her chancellor, Robert Cecil, has said, with great truth, that she was "more than a man, and in truth sometimes less than a woman."



LADY JANE GREY.

LADY JANE GREY, an illustrious female, whose accomplishments and misfortunes have rendered her an especial object of interest, was the daughter of Henry Grey, marquis of Dorset (afterward duke of Suffolk), by the lady Frances, daughter of Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, and Mary, younger sister of Henry VIII. She was born in 1537, at Bradgate, her father's seat in Leicestershire, and early in life gave proofs of talents of a superior order. She wrote an incomparable hand; played well on different instruments; and acquired a knowledge of the Greek, Hebrew, and Latin, as well as of the French and Italian languages. Roger Ascham has given a beautiful and affecting narrative of his interview with her at Bradgate, where he found her reading Plato's *Phædo* in Greek, while the family were amusing themselves in the park.

In 1551, her father was created duke of Suffolk; and at this time Lady Jane Grey was much at court, where the ambitious duke of Northumberland projected a marriage between her and his son, Lord Guildford Dudley, which took place at the end of May, 1553. Soon after this, Edward VI. died, having been prevailed upon, in his last illness, to settle the crown upon the Lady Jane, who reluctantly accepted it, and was proclaimed queen. This gleam of royalty, however, was of short duration; for the pageant reign lasted but nine days. The kingdom was dissatisfied, and the nobility indignant at the presumption of Northumberland; so that Mary soon overcame her enemies, and was not backward in taking ample revenge. The duke of Northumberland was beheaded; and Lady Jane and her husband were arraigned, convicted of treason, and sent to the Tower. After being confined some time, the council resolved to put these innocent victims of a parent's unprincipled ambition to death. Lord Guildford suffered first; and as he passed her window, his lady gave him her last adieu. Immediately afterward she was executed on the same scaffold; suffering with calm resignation, and a firm attachment to the protestant religion, February 12, 1554.

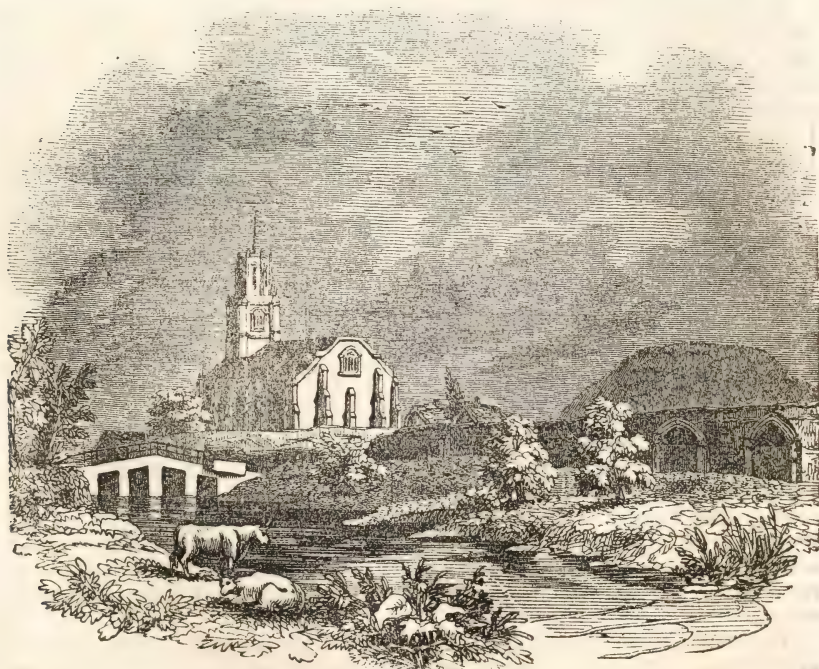


MARY STUART.

MARY STUART, queen of Scots, famous for her beauty, her wit, her learning, and her misfortunes, was daughter of James V., king of Scotland, and succeeded her father in 1542, eight days after her birth. In 1558 she married François, dauphin, and afterward king of France, by which means she became queen of France. This monarch dying in 1560, she returned into Scotland, and married her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, in 1565. Being excluded from any share of the government (as he suspected) by the advice of Rizzio, an Italian musician, her favorite and secretary, the king, by the counsel and assistance of some of the principal nobility, suddenly surprised them together, and Rizzio was slain in the queen's presence, in 1566. An apparent reconciliation afterward took place, when Darnley, who had continued to reside separately from the queen, was assassinated, and the house he inhabited blown up with gunpowder, in February, 1567. This barbarous transaction was but very imperfectly investigated; and in the month of May following, she wedded the earl of Bothwell, who was openly accused as the murderer of the late king. Scotland soon became a scene of confusion and civil discord. Bothwell, a fugitive and an outlaw, took refuge in Denmark; and Mary, made a captive, was treated with insult and contempt, and committed to custody in the castle of Loch Leven. After some months' confinement she effected her escape, and, assisted by the few friends who still remained attached to her, made an effort to recover her power. She was opposed by the earl of Murray, the natural son of James V., who had obtained the regency in the minority of her son. The battle of Langside insured the triumph of her enemies; and, to avoid fall-

ing again into their power, she fled to England, and sought the protection of Queen Elizabeth ; but that princess treated her as a personal and political rival, and kept her in safe custody. For a period of eighteen years was the unhappy queen of Scotland a state prisoner ; and, during the whole of that long term, she was considered as the head of the popish party, who wished to see a princess of their persuasion on the throne of England. Mary, despairing of recovering that of Scotland, most assuredly became a dupe to this party, and countenanced, if she was not directly concerned in, their plots. She was accordingly tried for a conspiracy against the life of the queen of England, condemned, and suffered decapitation, February 8, 1587, in the castle of Fotheringay, where she had been long confined. Her body was interred with great pomp in Peterborough cathedral, but subsequently removed by her son James I., to Henry the Seventh's chapel, Westminster abbey, where a magnificent monument was erected to her memory. The character and conduct of Mary, queen of Scots, have been made the subject of much controversy ; but the fact of her marrying Bothwell, "stained as he was by universal suspicion of Darnley's murder, is a spot upon her character for which we in vain seek an apology."

Fotheringay castle was demolished by the order of James I., to mark his indignation at the execution of his mother. Fotheringay church, a view of which is given below, stands near the site of the castle, and contains the mortal remains of several members of the Plantagenet family. It contains an ancient stone pulpit, and a fine font. If the remains of the castle had been on an extensive scale, and well preserved, the place would be more familiarly known than it is ; but its celebrity and consequence are solely the reflection of past times, the monuments of which do not exist to attract the visiter to the spot.



Fotheringay Church.

SULTAN AKBER.

MOHAMMED AKBER, son of the sultan Humayun, was born in 1543, and succeeded to the Mogul throne in India on the death of his father, in 1556, at the early age of thirteen. As he was yet too young to take the government into his own hands, it was intrusted, during his minority, to a Turkish nobleman, by the name of Behram, who had been his father's most valued friend. Behram was an able minister, but fond of absolute authority; therefore not very ready to bring forward his royal charge, who was kept for some years under more restraint than suited a high spirit, impatient of control.

Akber was handsome in person, courteous in manners, and gifted with all those princely qualities that are sure to render a monarch popular. Skilled in all manly exercises, and courageous even to madness, he delighted to exhibit his prowess in taming wild horses and elephants, or in braving the dangers to which huntsmen are exposed in the East, from the ferocious nature of the animals they chase. Tiger-hunting was the favorite sport of the young sultan, who, when engaged in this perilous pastime, was ever the most daring of the party, and in the eagerness of pursuit was frequently separated from his train; the only times, perhaps, when he found himself perfectly at liberty. It was on one of these occasions that he executed the bold project of freeing himself from a state of tutelage that was becoming every day more irksome to him. Galloping off alone to Delhi, he took possession of the palace as sole master, and issued a proclamation, declaring that he intended, from that moment, to take the government into his own hands.

Finding plenty of friends to support him, young Akber sent a formal dismissal to the regent, who was so incensed at being thus unexpectedly deprived of office, that he revolted, and, collecting a body of troops, attempted to make himself master of the Punjab; but being defeated by the royal army, he repaired to court, and, kneeling at the foot of the throne, solicited pardon for his rebellion, which was graciously accorded. The sultan then offered a government of some importance to the humbled minister, who, however, declined the proffered favor, on the plea that he desired to expiate his fault by making a pilgrimage to Mecca. Having received the royal permission, he set out on his journey, but never reached the holy city, as he was assassinated on the way by an Afghan chief, in revenge for the death of his father, who had fallen in battle against the Moguls.

Throughout the whole of Akber's reign incessant warfare was going on, partly caused by the rebellions of governors of provinces, and partly by the endeavors of Akber to extend the empire to its utmost limits. His arms were uniformly successful, and in a few years he had extended his dominions on every side. The great kingdom of Guzerat, which had been in a state of anarchy for a long period, was finally subdued and annexed to the Mogul dominions in 1573; so that in about twenty years from the date of his accession to the throne of Delhi, Akber had made himself absolute sovereign of all the country then known by the name of Hindostan. The chiefs of the conquered states were always treated honorably, and enrolled among the nobles of Delhi, while their territories being annexed to the empire, were placed under its regulations; so that one uniform system was established throughout Hindostan.

The victories of Akber were never stained with the cruelties that had disgraced those of former conquerors, for the army had been newly modelled, and the soldiers being all paid, were not permitted to plunder the towns, or sell the



Portrait of Sultan Akber.—From a Miniature painted in India.

prisoners as slaves. They had therefore no motive for seizing and carrying off the peaceable citizens, which used to be done to a frightful extent.

Akber distinguished himself no less as a legislator than as a conqueror. He made many beneficial laws, and relieved the people from a great number of burdensome taxes, which had been imposed by different princes to support either their wars or their extravagance. Not only did he himself personally examine into the minutest arrangements of the government, and correct or complete where he found them bad or imperfect, but in some departments he entirely remodelled the system; as, for instance, in the important one connected with the finances. He placed the whole taxation of the empire upon a new and improved basis, removing a great number of vexatious and injurious taxes for one broad, equitable levy upon the land of the country, which he had carefully measured, and the amount of revenue fixed. He remitted the navigation duties, and reduced those on manufactories. The coin was improved by enhancing its real as compared with the previous nominal value. Literature and the arts were never better encouraged or appreciated; and lastly, the education of the people was made more universal, and its quality incalculably improved, under his judicious patronage. With a truly enlightened policy, he instituted public schools for both Hindus and Mohammedans, where every boy was educated according to his prospects in life, and the circumstances of his parents.

It was during the reign of Akber that the first Christian missionaries were received at the court, to which they were invited by the emperor himself. They were sent by the Portuguese government from Goa, and resided at Agra fifteen years, where they were treated with great respect, and allowed to hold discussions on the subjects of religion with the priests of other persuasions, in the presence of the emperor, who was accustomed, on a Friday evening, to assemble all the most learned men of his court, for the purpose of holding discussions, when Mohammedans, Christians, Jews, Bramins, and fire-worshippers, were allowed to give their opinions without restraint, and to support them by argument.

The court of Akber was the most splendid that had ever been held in India; and his own style of living was of that sumptuous character, that the mere description of it may seem to partake of exaggeration. His hunting establishment is said to have consisted of five thousand elephants, and double that number of horses, which were also used in war; and when he marched in person at the head of his armies, he was provided with an equipage that enabled him to surround himself, even in a desert, with all the pomp and luxuries of his imperial palaces. Whenever the army encamped, a vast space was enclosed by screens of red canvass, ornamented with gilt globes and spires, forming a wall, within which were erected a great number of splendid pavilions, richly furnished, some of which were used as rooms of state, some as banqueting-halls, others for retirement or repose; while an inner enclosure contained the apartments of the ladies, all fitted up in the most costly and elegant manner. This enclosure, as we are told, occupied an area of full five miles in circumference. The emperor's birthday was celebrated with great pomp on a vast plain near the city; and on these occasions the monarch caused himself to be weighed in golden scales three times, the first balance being of gold pieces, the second of silver, the third of perfumes, all which were distributed among the spectators!

Akber reigned no less than fifty-one years, but his latter days were not blessed with the content and happiness to himself which he had done so much to diffuse among his subjects. He lost a son, whom he tenderly loved; then his minister Abul Fazil, who was murdered by banditti; and, lastly, another son. These blows, one after the other, were too much for him: his health declined visibly, and in 1605 he died, leaving his subjects to mourn for one of the best and wisest sovereigns that ever adorned or dignified a throne.



TORQUATO TASSO.

TORQUATO TASSO, the great author of "Jerusalem Delivered," was born at Sorrento, near Naples, March 11, 1511. His father was Bernardo Tasso, also a scholar and a poet, in his own day, of considerable repute. The life of Tasso was almost from its commencement a troubled romance. His infancy was distinguished by extraordinary precocity; but he was yet a mere child when political events induced his father to leave Naples, and, separating himself from his family, to take up his abode at Rome. Hither Torquato, when he was only in his eleventh year, was called upon to follow him, and to bid adieu both to what had been hitherto his home, and to the only parent whom it might almost be said he had ever known.

He never again saw his mother; she died about eighteen months after he had left her. The only near relation he now had remaining besides his father was a sister; and from her also he was separated, those with whom she resided after her mother's death at Naples preventing her from going to share, as she wished to do, the exile of her father and brother. But after the latter had been together for about two years at Rome, circumstances occurred which again divided them. Bernardo found it necessary to consult his safety by retiring from that city, on which he proceeded himself to Urbino, and sent his son to Bergamo, in the north of Italy. The favorable reception, however, which the former found at the court of the duke of Urbino, induced him in a few months to send for Torquato; and when he arrived, the graces and accomplishments of the boy so pleased the duke, that he appointed him the companion of his own

son in his studies. They remained at the court of Urbino for two years when, in 1559, the changing fortunes of Bernardo drew them thence to Venice. This unsettled life, however, had never interrupted the youthful studies of Tasso; and after they had resided for some time at Venice, his father sent him to the university of Padua, in the intention that he should prepare himself for the profession of the law. But all views of this kind were soon abandoned by the young poet. Instead of perusing Justinian, he spent his time in writing verses; and the result was the publication of his poem of *Rinaldo* before he had completed his eighteenth year. We can not here trace minutely the remaining progress of his shifting and agitated history. His literary industry in the midst of almost ceaseless distractions of all kinds was most extraordinary. His great poem, the "*Jerusalem Delivered*," is said to have been begun in his nineteenth year, when he was at Bologna. In 1565 he first visited the court of Ferrara, having been carried thither by the cardinal Luigi d'Este, the brother of the reigning Duke Alphonso. This event gave a color to the whole of Tasso's future existence. It has been supposed that the young poet allowed himself to form an attachment to the princess Leonora, one of the two sisters of the duke, and that the object of his aspiring love was not insensible to that union of eminent personal graces with the fascinations of genius which courted her regard. But there hangs a mystery over the story which has never been completely cleared away. What is certain is, that, with the exception of a visit which he paid to Paris in 1571, in the train of the cardinal Luigi, Tasso continued to reside at Ferrara, till the completion and publication of his celebrated epic in 1575. He had already given to the world his beautiful pastoral drama, the "*Aminta*," the next best known and most esteemed of his productions.

From this period his life becomes a long course of storm and darkness, rarely relieved even by a fitful gleam of light. For several years the great poet, whose fame was already spread over Europe, seems to have wandered from city to city in his native country, in a state almost of beggary, impelled by a restlessness of spirit which no change of scene would relieve. But Ferrara was still the central spot around which his affections hovered, and to which, apparently in spite of himself, he constantly after a brief interval returned. In this state of mind much of his conduct was probably extravagant enough; but it is hardly to be believed that he really gave any cause for the harsh, and, if unmerited, most atrocious measure to which his former patron and friend, the duke Alphonso, resorted in 1579, of consigning him as lunatic to the hospital of St. Anne. In this receptacle of wretchedness the poet was confined for above seven years. The princess Leonora, who has been supposed to have been the innocent cause of his detention, died in 1581; but neither this event, nor the solicitations of his most powerful friends and admirers, could prevail upon Alphonso to grant Tasso his liberty. Meanwhile the alleged lunatic occupied, and no doubt lightened, many of his hours by the exercise of his pen. His compositions were numerous, both in prose and verse, and many of them found their way to the press. At last, in July, 1586, on the earnest application of Don Vincenzo Gonzaga, son of the duke of Mantua, he was released from his long imprisonment. He spent the close of that year at Mantua; but he then resumed his wandering habits, and, although he never again visited Ferrara, his old disposition to flit about from place to place seems to have clung to him like a disease. In this singular mode of existence he met with the strangest vicissitudes of fortune. One day he would be the most conspicuous object at a splendid court, crowned with lavish honors by the prince, and basking in the admiration of all beholders; another, he would be travelling alone on the highway, with weary steps and empty purse, and reduced to the necessity of borrowing, or rather begging, by the humblest suit, the means of sustaining existence. Such was

his life for six or seven years. At last, in November, 1594, he made his appearance at Rome. It was resolved that the greatest living poet of Italy should be crowned with the laurel in the imperial city, as Petrarch had been more than two hundred and fifty years before. The decree to that effect was passed by the pope and the senate; but ere the day of triumph came, Tasso was seized with an illness which he instantly felt would be mortal. At his own request, he was conveyed to the neighboring monastery of St. Onofrio, the same retreat in which twenty years before, his father breathed his last; and here, surrounded by the consolations of that faith, which had been through life his constant support, he patiently awaited what he firmly believed would be the issue of his malady. He expired in the arms of Cardinal Cinthio Aldobrandini, on the 25th of April, 1595, having just entered upon his fifty-second year. The cardinal had brought him the pope's benediction, on receiving which he exclaimed, "This is the crown with which I hope to be crowned, not as a poet in the capitol, but with the glory of the blessed in heaven."

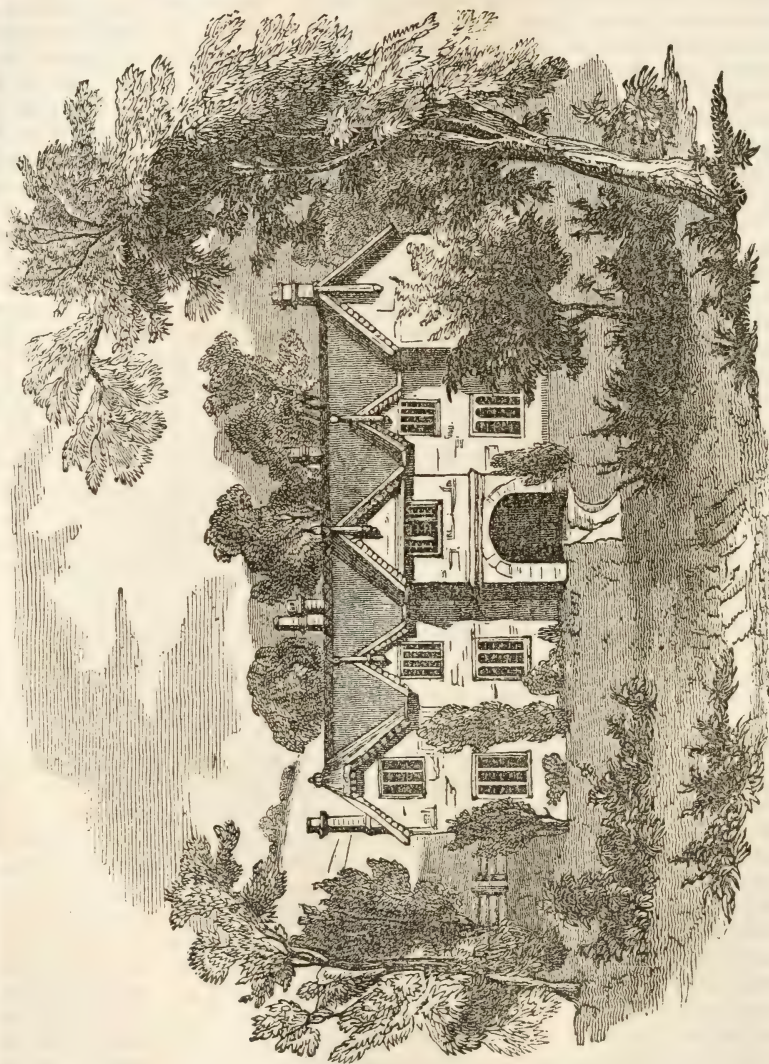
Critics have differed widely in their estimate of the poetical genius of Tasso, some ranking the "Jerusalem Delivered" with the greatest productions of ancient or modern times, and others nearly denying it all claim to merit in that species of composition of which it professes to be an example. Nothing certainly but the most morbid prejudice could have dictated Boileau's peevish allusion to "the tinsel of Tasso," as contrasted with "the gold of Virgil;" but although the poem is one of surpassing grace and majesty, the beauty and loftiness both of sentiment and of language by which it is marked, are perhaps, in a somewhat artificial style, and want the life and spell of power which belong to the creations of mightier masters of epic song—Homer, Dante, and Milton. His genius was unquestionably far less original and self-sustained than any one of these. It is not, however, the triumph of mere art with which he captivates and imposes upon us, but something far beyond that, it is rather what Wordsworth in speaking of another subject, has called "the pomp of cultivated nature."

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

THE name of Sir WALTER RALEIGH is dear to Americans, for to him is due the honor of projecting and of keeping up, by his persevering efforts and expensive expeditions, the idea of permanent British settlements in America. His name is thus associated with the origin of the independent states of North America, and must be revered by all who, from liberal curiosity or pious affection, study the early history of their country.

WALTER RALEIGH was born at Hayes, on the coast of Devonshire, in 1552. When young, he was sent to Oriel college, Oxford, where he exhibited a restless ambition, which prompted him to seek distinction rather in the stirring scenes of the world, than the cloistered solitude of a college; and this natural inclination to adventure was fostered by the study of books relating to the conquests of the Spaniards in the New World, a species of reading which was the delight of his early years, and undoubtedly gave a color to the whole tenor of his life.

At the age of seventeen, he made one of a troop of a hundred gentlemen volunteers, whom Queen Elizabeth permitted to go to France, under the command of Henry Champeron, for the service of the protestant princes. He next served in the Netherlands; and, on his return from the continent, his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, having obtained a grant of lands in North America, he en-



Birthplace of Sir Walter Raleigh, Devonshire, England.

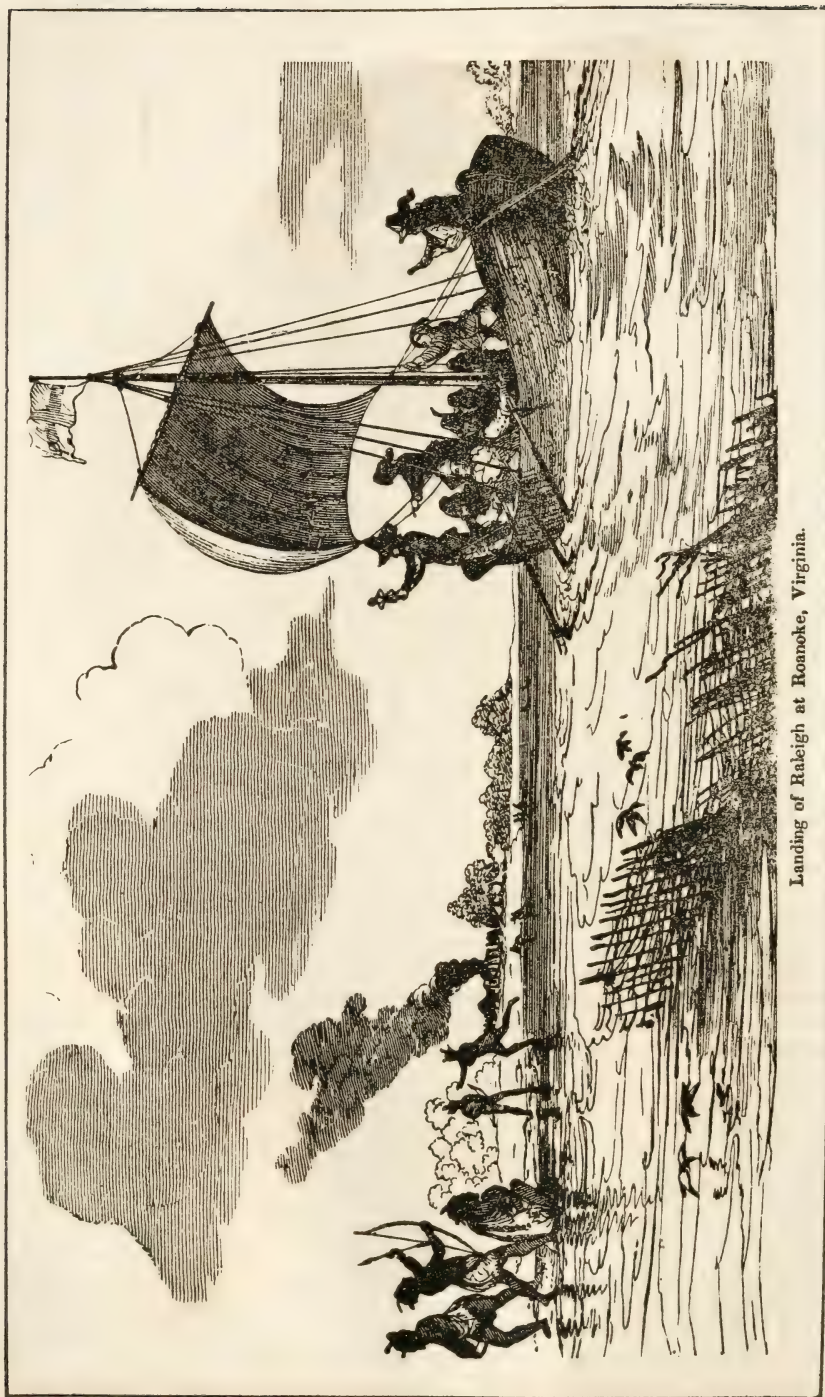


Sir Walter Raleigh.

gaged with a considerable number of gentlemen to go out to Newfoundland ; but the expedition proving unsuccessful. Sir Walter returned to England, after being exposed to several dangers ; and proceeded thence to Ireland, where he made his bravery so conspicuous in quelling the insurgents, that he was received at court with considerable favor, and obtained permission and supplies to prosecute his discoveries in America, which ended in his settling a colony in this country, called, in honor of his maiden sovereign, "Virginia;" and he is said to have first introduced tobacco and potatoes into Europe. In the meantime, the queen conferred on him the distinction of knighthood, and rewarded him by several lucrative grants, including a large share of the forfeited Irish estates.

When his country's safety was threatened by the famous Spanish armada, Raleigh raised and disciplined the militia of Cornwall ; and afterward, by joining the fleet with a squadron of ships belonging to gentlemen-volunteers, assisted in obtaining the signal victory which it pleased Providence to give the English over the Spaniards on that occasion. He was now made gentleman of the privy chamber ; but shortly after fell into disgrace, and was confined for some months, partly on account of a tract which he had published, entitled "The School for Atheists," which was unfairly construed by his enemies into a vindication of atheistical principles ; and partly by a clandestine attachment to one of the queen's maids of honor, the daughter of Sir Nicholas Throckmorton—which lady, however, he afterward honorably married.

During his seclusion, Sir Walter planned the discovery of the extensive country of Guiana, in South America, in which he took an active part himself



Landing of Raleigh at Roanoke, Virginia.

as soon as he was set at liberty ; but the season being unfavorable, he returned to England, and was soon after appointed to a command in the important expedition to Cadiz, of which the success was in a great measure owing to Sir Walter's valor and prudence. This, joined to several other important services, restored him completely to the favor of Elizabeth, toward the end of her reign. Her successor, James I., prejudiced against him by the earl of Essex, disapproving of his martial spirit, and jealous of his abilities, availed himself of a court conspiracy against this great man, charging him with participating in an attempt to place upon the throne Arabella Stuart, and of carrying on a secret correspondence with the king of Spain. By the base subservience of the jury he was brought in guilty of high-treason, even to the surprise of the attorney-general Coke himself, who declared that he had only charged him with misprision of treason. Having been warned to prepare for execution, Sir Walter sent a manly and affecting letter to his wife, from which the following is an extract :—

“ When I am gone, no doubt you shall be sought to by many, for the world thinks I was very rich. But take heed of the pretences of men, and their affections ; for they last not but in honest and worthy men, and no greater misery can befall you in this life than to become a prey, and afterward to be despised. I speak not this, God knows, to dissuade you from marriage ; for it will be best for you, both in respect of the world and of God. As for me, I am no more yours, nor you mine. Death has cut us asunder, and God hath divided me from the world, and you from me. Remember your poor child for his father's sake, who chose you and loved you in his happiest time. Get those letters, if it be possible, which I writ to the lords, wherein I sued for my life. God is my witness it was for you and yours that I desired life. But it is true that I disdain myself for begging it ; for know it, dear wife, your son is the son of a true man, and one who, in his own respect, despiseth Death in all his misshapen and ugly forms. I can not write much. God he knoweth how hardly I steal this time, while others sleep ; and it is also high time that I should separate my thoughts from the world. Beg my dead body, which, living, was denied thee, and either leave it at Sherborne, if the land continue, or in Exeter church, by my father and mother. I can say no more : time and death call me away.

“ The everlasting, powerful, infinite, and omnipotent God, who is goodness itself, the true life and true light, keep thee and thine, have mercy on me, and teach me to forgive my persecutors and accusers, and send us to meet in his glorious kingdom. My dear wife, farewell ! Bless my poor boy ; pray for me, and let my good God hold you both in his arms ! Written with the dying hand of some time thy husband, but now, alas ! overthrown. Yours that was, but now not my own,

“ RALEIGH.”

Sir Walter, however, was reprieved at this time, but was committed to the Tower, where his wife, at her earnest solicitation, was allowed to reside with him, and where his youngest son was born. Twelve years was Raleigh detained a prisoner in the Tower, during which time, besides various minor compositions, he wrote his “ History of the World,” a work distinguished for the richness of its information, the judiciousness of its reflections, and the vigor of its style. At length his release was obtained, in 1616, by the advance of a large sum of money to James's new favorite, Villiers, duke of Buckingham ; and, to retrieve his broken fortunes, he planned another expedition to America. He obtained a patent under the great seal for making a settlement in Guiana ; but, in order to retain a power over him, the king did not grant him a pardon for the sentence passed upon him for his alleged treason. Having reached the Orinoco, he despatched a portion of his force to attack the new Spanish settle-



Sir Walter Raleigh taking leave of his Family.

ment of St. Thomas, which was captured; but he had to lament the death of his eldest son, who fell on that occasion. The expected plunder proved of little value; and Sir Walter, having in vain tried to induce his captains to attack other Spanish settlements, arrived at Plymouth in July, 1616. Being brought before the court of king's bench, his plea of an implied pardon by his subsequent command was overruled; and the doom of death being pronounced against him, it was carried into execution the following day, October 29, 1618, in Old Palace-yard.

Raleigh's conduct, while on the scaffold, was extremely firm. The morning being sharp, the sheriff offered to bring him down off the scaffold to warm himself by the fire before he should say his prayers. "No, good Mr. Sheriff," said he, "let us despatch; for within this quarter of an hour my ague will come upon me, and if I be not dead before that, mine enemies will say I quake for fear." He then, to use the words of a contemporary and eyewitness, made a most divine and admirable prayer; after which, rising up, and clasping his hands together, he exclaimed, "Now I am going to God!" The scaffold was soon cleared; and having thrown off his gown and doublet, he bade the executioner show him the axe, which not being done immediately, he was urgent in his request. "I prithee," said he, "let me see it. Dost thou think I am afraid of it?" Taking it in his hand, he kissed the blade, and passing his finger slightly along the edge, observed to the sheriff, "'Tis a sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases." He then walked to the corner of the scaffold, and kneeling down, requested the people to pray for him, and for a considerable time remained on his knees, engaged in silent devotion; after which he rose, and carefully examined the block, laying himself down to fit it to his neck, and to choose the easiest and most decent attitude. In all this he would receive no assistance; and having satisfied himself, he rose and declared he was ready.

The executioner now came forward, and kneeling, asked his forgiveness, upon which Raleigh laid his hand smilingly on his shoulder, and bade him be satisfied, for he most cheerfully forgave him, only entreating him not to strike till he himself gave the signal, and then to fear nothing, and strike home. Saying this, he lay down on the block, and on being directed to place himself so that his face should look to the east, he answered, "It mattered little how the head lay, provided the heart was right." After a little while, during which it was observed, by the motion of his lips and hands, that he was occupied in prayer, he gave the signal; but, whether from awkwardness or agitation, the executioner delayed; upon which, after waiting for a short time, Raleigh partially raised his head, and said aloud, "What dost thou fear? Strike, man!" The axe then descended, and at two strokes the head was severed from the body, which never shrunk or altered its position, while the extraordinary effusion of blood evinced an unusual strength and vigor of constitution, though when he suffered Sir Walter was in his sixty-sixth year.

The head, after being, as usual, held up to the view of the people on either side of the scaffold, was put into a red bag, over which his velvet nightgown was thrown, and the whole immediately carried to a mourning-coach which was waiting, and conveyed to Lady Raleigh. This faithful and affectionate woman, who never married again, though she survived him twenty-nine years, had it embalmed and preserved in a case, which she kept with pious solicitude till her death. The body was buried privately near the high altar of St. Margaret's church, Westminster, but no stone marks the spot.

SIR PHILIP SIDNEY.

TRULY and beautifully has the poet Campbell described Sidney's life as "poetry put into action." His graceful form and manly character, strongly relieved by the "light of young romance," seems ever to stand before our eyes exalted even beyond its due proportions. His contemporaries deemed him not only a highly accomplished scholar and a gallant and most true-hearted gentleman, but also a great statesman, a greater warrior, and, with scarcely an exception, the greatest of living poets. There may be a kind of natural justice in all this: he died at the early age of thirty-two, and consequently the many striking and valuable qualities he possessed had not sufficient time allowed them for development. As it was, however, he left to biography materials for one of the most attractive of its characters.

He was born at Penshurst, in Kent, England, November 29, 1554. His father Sir Henry Sidney was (according to Lord Brooke, the poet and very dear friend of Sidney) a man of "excellent natural wit, large heart, and sweet conversation." Sidney's early education was obtained at the grammar-school of Shrewsbury, whence he was removed to Christ-church college, Oxford, which he afterward exchanged for Trinity college, Cambridge. His passion for learning early evidenced itself. At the age of seventeen he began his travels. At Paris he escaped the dreadful massacre of St. Bartholomew, by flying into the house of the English ambassador. He afterward extended his travels to Germany and Italy, and returned to England after an absence of four years.

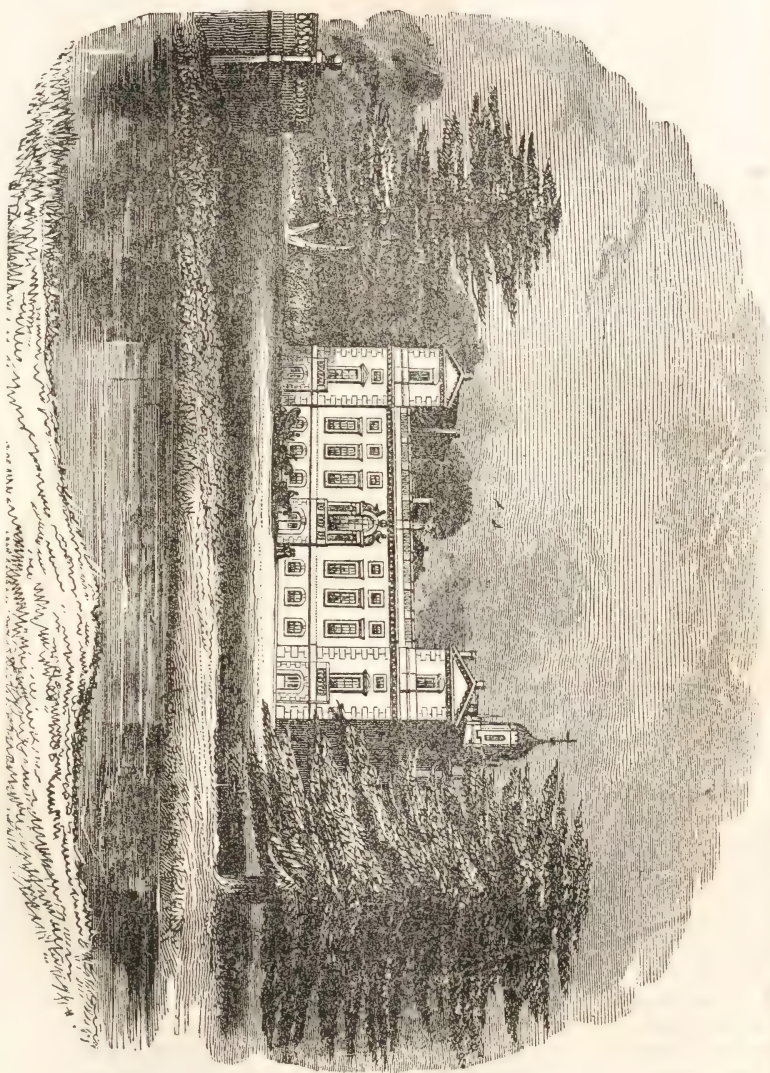
He now became a courtier, and was peculiarly in favor with Elizabeth. She called him "*her* Philip," in opposition, it is alleged, to Philip of Spain, her late sister's husband. In 1576 she sent him on an embassy to Rudolph II., to congratulate him on his accession, and intrusted him at the same time with other important negotiations she wish to carry on with some of the German princes. He returned in 1577, and for some years received no important public appointment, a circumstance that it seems difficult to attribute to any other cause than the minister's (Burleigh's) expressed policy of "suppressing able men," for that he was still in high favor with the queen is apparent from various circumstances, but principally from the following. Catherine de Medicis was at this period endeavoring to conclude a match between Elizabeth and the duke of Anjou, to which the former seemed inclined to listen. This excited much alarm among the entire body of English protestants, the union of England with Roman catholic France appeared unendurable. Sidney now performed one of the boldest acts of his life. He addressed privately a long epistle to the queen, earnestly dissuading her from her proposed marriage, and she seems to have received it favorably. Hume praises this letter for "its unusual elegance of expression as well as for its force of reasoning." A quarrel occurred between Sidney and the earl of Oxford soon after this, which led to his withdrawing himself from the court for a considerable period, burying himself in solitude at Wilton, the seat of his brother-in-law the earl of Pembroke, where he wrote his famous "*Arcadia*." In 1581, the duke of Anjou having arrived in England, in order to prosecute, as he hoped, his suit more effectually, Sidney returned to the sunshine of royal favor, and in the jousts and tournaments that took place in honor of the distinguished guests, greatly distinguished himself. In 1583 he was knighted, on the occasion of his being invested with the Order of the Garter as proxy for the prince palatine of the Rhine, John Casimir. About the same period he married a daughter of Sir Thomas Walsingham, which did not add much to his domestic happiness. He had been early betrothed to Lady Penelope Devereux, daughter of the earl of Essex, and although the affair was broken off in some mysterious way, yet he continued through his life fondly



Portrait of Sir Philip Sidney.

attached to her. Many of his poems are addressed to her under feigned names. In 1585, seduced by the marvellous accounts of Frobisher and other voyagers, he planned an expedition against the Spaniards in South America, in conjunction with Drake. He won over to his views thirty gentlemen of "great blood and state." The matter was managed with the greatest secrecy, to prevent any interference on the part of the queen, and he had reached Plymouth in order to embark, when the regal mandate reached him, forbidding his departure on pain of her great displeasure, while obedience to her command should be followed by immediate employment under his uncle, the earl of Leicester.

An extraordinary proof of Elizabeth's personal regard for him was exhibited in the matter of his proposed election to the sovereignty of Poland. He was, it is said, proposed by the states, and had the queen of England favored his cause, would in all probability have been chosen, but she refused "to further his advancement, out of fear she should lose the jewel of her times." In 1585, he received the appointment his sovereign had promised—he was made a general of cavalry under the earl of Leicester, and also governor of Flushing. The earl commanded the English forces sent into the Netherlands to assist the Dutch against the Spaniards, and at first, says Lord Brooke, "bore a hand over his nephew as a forward young man. Notwithstanding, in short time he saw this sun so risen above his horizon, that both he and all his stars were glad to fetch light from him." We now approach the abrupt and melancholy conclusion of Sidney's career. On the 22d of September, 1586, as he was in the neighborhood of Zutphen, then besieged by the English troops, at the head of a detachment of five hundred men, he unexpectedly met with a body of the enemy, nearly six times as great as his own, guarding a convoy intended for the relief of Zutphen. Victory was obtained, but at a high price; indeed, it cost no less than the life of Sir Philip Sidney. He was shot in the thigh, and the bone was so broken and the direction of the bullet so peculiar that it could not be found till the body was opened after death. It is painful to know that but for an imprudence into which he was betrayed by his gallantry of spirit, this wound might have been averted. He had fully armed himself according to the custom of the time, but seeing the marshal of the camp comparatively defenceless, he threw off his own cuirass, and thus opened a free entry for his mortal wound. "Nothing in life became him like the leaving of it," may indeed be strictly applied to Sir Philip Sidney. While passing along the camp thus mortally wounded, and feeling thirsty with excess of bleeding, he called for a drink, which was presently brought him in a bottle. At this moment a soldier still more dangerously hurt, and who, as Lord Brooke observes, "had eaten his last at this same feast," was borne by, and was observed by Sidney to fix his ghastly and imploring looks upon him. He immediately handed the bottle to the poor soldier, saying simply, "Thy necessity is greater than mine!" He was conveyed with the greatest care to Arnheim, and all that skill could do to recover him was done in vain. His dying words to his brother, Sir Robert Sidney, afterward earl of Leicester, are too beautiful to be omitted in any sketch of his life, however short: "Love my memorie: cherish my friends; their faith to me may assure you they are honest. But above all, govern your will and affections by the will and word of the Creator; in me beholding the end of this world with its vanities." He died on the 17th of October, 1586. His body was brought to England to be interred, although the Dutch begged to be allowed to keep it, pledging themselves if their request was complied with, to erect a monument of almost unheard-of magnificence. The remains, however, were very properly kept possession of by Sidney's countrymen, and ultimately interred at St. Paul's. The national grief was most extraordinary—the whole kingdom went into mourning, and scarcely ever did a comparatively private individual depart this life attended with so much public regret.



Wilton House, where Sir Philip Sidney wrote his "Arcadia".



FRANCIS BACON.

FRANCIS BACON was born the twenty-second day of January, 1561, and was the son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, for more than twenty years keeper of the great seal. He was educated at Trinity college, Cambridge, after leaving which he entered himself a student of Gray's Inn, with the object of following his father's profession of the law. In this profession, and in public life, he rapidly rose to the highest eminence; and in 1619 he was made lord high chancellor of England, and created Baron Verulam, to which title was added, the following year, that of Viscount St. Albans. Bacon's political course, up to this time, had not been very remarkable for disinterestedness or independence; and it was destined to terminate suddenly in disgrace and sorrow. In March, 1621, he was impeached by the house of commons for corruption in his high office; and his own confession soon after admitted the truth of the accusation in nearly all its force; on which he was immediately deprived of the seals, and sentenced to be fined, imprisoned during the king's pleasure, and for ever excluded from parliament and all public employments. He afterward obtained a remission of the hardest parts of his sentence: but he only survived till the ninth of April 1626, on which day he died suddenly at the earl of Arundel's house of High

gate. Intellectually considered, he was so great a man, that his character and conduct, as an historical personage, are commonly, as it were by general consent, in a very singular degree overlooked and forgotten when we mention the name of Bacon. It is worthy of notice, as a curious evidence of how little the delinquencies and misfortunes of the politician, memorable as they were, were some time after his death known or noted in those parts of the world which were most filled with the fame of the philosopher, that Bayle, in his dictionary, published in 1695, and again in 1702, has given us an article on Bacon, in which he does not so much as allude to his lamentable fall, being evidently ignorant that such an event had ever taken place.

It is a most remarkable fact, and one vividly illustrative of the weakness and inefficiency of a philosophy so constituted, that for the long space of nearly two thousand years it not only remained unproductive, but actually went back and decayed every day more and more. From the age of Democritus, Hippocrates, and Aristotle, four hundred years before the birth of Christ, down to nearly the middle of the sixteenth century of our era, men, instead of making any progress in the method of prosecuting the study of nature, had been gradually sinking into deeper and deeper ignorance and blindness in regard to everything appertaining to that branch of science. Accidental discoveries may have occasionally turned up to add a few items to their stock of facts, though not, there is reason to believe, to an extent sufficient to make up for those which were continually dropping away into forgetfulness; but of philosophy itself, properly so called, there was nearly all the while a decline like that of the daylight after the sun has sunk below the horizon. Certain general principles, sanctioned by the authority of great names, or the tradition of the schools, were considered as forming the necessary foundation of all truth. No attempt was made, or so much as thought of, to test these sacred affirmations by the actual investigation of nature; the aim was always to reconcile the fact to the doctrine, not the doctrine to the fact. At last the application, and we might almost say the worship of these principles became nearly the sole occupation of the professors of philosophy; even the collecting of new facts by means of observation was entirely given up. This was the state of things during what are called the middle or the dark ages, which may be described as comprehending the thousand years from the taking of Rome by the Goths in the middle of the fifth century, to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks in the middle of the fifteenth.

After this last-mentioned event, and the revival of letters in the west, which was brought about mainly by the learned exiles whom the destruction of the Grecian empire forced to take refuge in Italy, the human intellect did indeed manifest a disposition, in almost all departments of science, to throw off the yoke of prejudice and authority to which it had so long resigned itself. In natural philosophy, as well as in other studies, various intrepid and original thinkers arose, determined to make their way to the knowledge of truth by their own efforts, and to look into the realities of nature with their own eyes. These men well deserve to be accounted the pioneers of Bacon. But it was not till he arose, that the war against the old despotic formalities of the schools was commenced on anything like a grand scale, or carried on with adequate vigor and system. It was he who actually effected the conquest—who dispersed the darkness and brought in the light. This he did by the publication of his "*Novum Organum Scientiarum*," or "*New Instrument of the Sciences*," in the opening sentence of which, the fundamental tenet of his philosophy is announced, in the following words: "Man, the servant and interpreter of Nature, understands and reduces to practice just so much as he has actually experienced of Nature's laws; more he can neither know nor achieve."



GALILEO.

THE 19th of February by some accounts, but according to the best authorities the 15th, is the anniversary of the birth of one of the greatest philosophers of modern times, the celebrated GALILEO GALILEI. He was born at Pisa, in 1564. His family, which, till the middle of the fourteenth century, had borne the name of Bonaiuti, was ancient and noble, but not wealthy; and his father, Vincenzo Galilei, appears to have been a person of very superior talents and accomplishments. He is the author of several treatises upon music, which show him to have been master of both the practice and theory of that art.

GALILEO was the eldest of a family of six children, three sons and three daughters. His boyhood, like that of Newton, and of many other distinguished cultivators of mathematical and physical science, evinced the natural bent of his genius by various mechanical contrivances which he produced; and he also showed a strong predilection and talent for both music and painting. It was resolved, however, that he should be educated for the medical profession; and with that view he was, in 1581, entered at the university of his native town. He appears to have applied himself, for some time, to the study of medicine. We have an interesting evidence of the degree in which his mind was divided between this new pursuit and its original turn for mechanical observation and invention, in the history of his first great discovery, that of the isochronism (or equal-timedness, as it might be translated) of the vibrations of the pendulum. The suspicion of this curious and most important fact was first suggested to Galileo while he was attending college, by the motions of a lamp swinging from the roof of the cathedral. It immediately occurred to him that here was an excellent means of ascertaining the rate of the pulse; and accordingly, after he had verified the matter by experiment, this was the first and for

a long time the only application which he made of his discovery. He contrived several little instruments for counting the pulse by the vibrations of a pendulum, which soon came into general use, under the name of *pulsilogies*; and it was not till after many years that it was employed as a general measure of time.

It was probably after this discovery that Galileo began the study of mathematics. From that instant he seemed to have found his true field. So fascinated was he with the beautiful truths of geometry, that his medical books henceforth remained unopened, or were only spread out over his Euclid to hide it from his father, who was at first so much grieved by his son's absorption in his new study, that he positively prohibited him from any longer indulging in it. After some time, however, seeing that his injunctions were insufficient to overcome the strong bias of nature, he yielded the point, and Galileo was permitted to take his own way. Having mastered Euclid, he now proceeded to read the "Hydrostatics" of Archimedes; after studying which he produced his first mathematical work, an "Essay on the Hydrostatical Balance." His reputation soon spread itself abroad; and he was introduced to one of the ablest of the Italian mathematicians of that day, Guido Ubaldo, who, struck with his extraordinary knowledge and talents, recommended him to the good offices of his brother, the cardinal del Monté; and by the latter he was made known to the then grand-duke Ferdinand.

The road to distinction was now open to him. In 1589, he was appointed to the office of lecturer of mathematics in the University of Pisa; and this situation he retained till 1592, when he was nominated by the republic of Venice to be professor of mathematics for six years in their University of Padua. From the moment at which he received the first of these appointments, Galileo gave himself up entirely to science; and, although his salary at first was not large, and he was consequently, in order to eke out his income, obliged to devote a great part of his time to private teaching, in addition to that consumed by his public duties, his incessant activity enabled him to accomplish infinitely more than most other men would have been able to overtake in a life of uninterrupted leisure. The whole range of natural philosophy, as then existing, engaged his attention; and besides reading, observation, and experiment, the composition of dissertations on his favorite subjects occupied his laborious days and nights. In 1598, he was reappointed to his professorship, with an increased salary; and in 1606 he was nominated for the third time, with an additional augmentation. By this time he was so popular as a lecturer, and was attended by such throngs of auditors, that it is said he was frequently obliged to adjourn from the largest hall in the university, which held a thousand persons, to the open air. Among the services which he had already rendered to science may be mentioned his contrivance of an instrument for finding proportional lines, similar to Gunter's scale, and his re-discovery of the thermometer, which seems to have been known to some of the ancient philosophers, but had long been entirely forgotten.

But the year 1609 was the most momentous in the career of Galileo as an enlarger of the bounds of natural philosophy. It was in this year that he made his grand discovery of the telescope—having been induced to turn his attention to the effect of a combination of magnifying-glasses, by a report which was brought to him, while on a visit to Venice, of a wonderful instrument constructed on some such principle, which had just been sent to Italy from Holland. In point of fact, it appears that a rude species of telescope had been previously fabricated in that country; but Galileo, who had never seen this contrivance, was undoubtedly the true and sole inventor of the instrument in that form in which alone it could be applied to any scientific use. The interest excited by this discovery transcended all that has ever been inspired by any

of the other wonders of science. After having exhibited his new instrument for a few days, Galileo presented it to the senate of Venice, who immediately re-elected him to his professorship for life, and doubled his salary, making it now one thousand florins. He then constructed another telescope for himself, and with that proceeded to examine the heavens. He had not long directed it to this, the field which has ever since been its principal domain, before he was rewarded with a succession of brilliant discoveries. The four satellites, or attendant moons, of Jupiter, revealed themselves for the first time to the human eye. Other stars unseen before met him in every quarter of the heavens to which he turned. Saturn showed his singular encompassing ring. The moon unveiled her seas and her mountains. The sun himself discovered spots of dark lying in the midst of his brightness. All these wonders were announced to the world by Galileo in the successive numbers of a publication which he entitled the "*Nuncius Siderius*, or Intelligence of the Heavens," a newspaper undoubtedly unrivalled for extraordinary tidings by any other that has ever appeared.

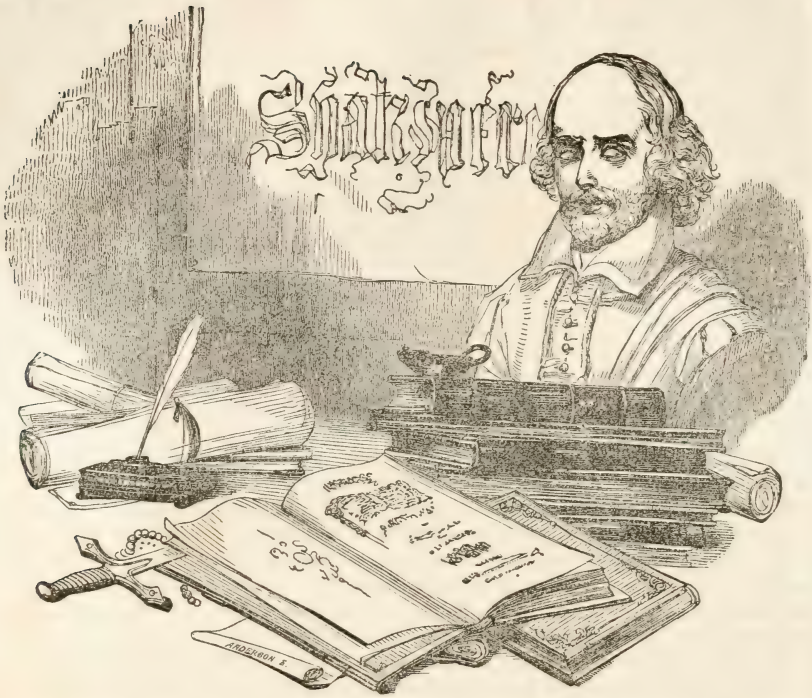
In 1610, Galileo was induced to resign his professorship at Padua, on the invitation of the grand-duke of Tuscany to accept of the appointment of his first mathematician and philosopher at Pisa. Soon after his removal thither, he appears to have for the first time ventured upon openly teaching the Copernican system of the world, of the truth of which he had been many years before convinced. This bold step drew down upon the great philosopher a cruel and disgraceful persecution which terminated only with his life. An outcry was raised by the ignorant bigotry of the time, on the ground that in maintaining the doctrine of the earth's motion round the sun, he was contradicting the language of scripture, where, it was said, the earth was constantly spoken of as at rest. The day is gone by when it would have been necessary to attempt any formal refutation of this absurd notion, founded as it is upon a total misapprehension of what the object of the Scriptures is, which are intended to teach men morality and religion only, not mathematics or astronomy, and which would not have been even intelligible to those to whom they were first addressed, unless their language in regard to this and various other matters had been accommodated to the then universally prevailing opinions. In Galileo's day, however the church of Rome had not learned to admit this very obvious consideration. In 1616, Galileo, having gone to Rome on learning the hostility which was gathering against him, was graciously received by the pope, but was commanded to abstain in future from teaching the doctrines of Copernicus.

For some years the matter was allowed to sleep, till in 1632 the philosopher published his celebrated "*Dialogue on the two Systems of the World, the Ptolemaic and the Copernican*," in which he took but little pains to disguise his thorough conviction of the truth of the latter. The rage of his enemies, who had been so long nearly silent, now burst upon him in a terrible storm. The book was consigned to the inquisition, before which formidable tribunal the author was forthwith summoned to appear. He arrived at Rome, February 14, 1633. We have not space to relate the history of the process. It is doubtful whether or not Galileo was actually put to the torture, though it is commonly affirmed that at this time, as well as on his former persecution, he was compelled to abjure the system of Copernicus; and it is related that, in the last instance, when he had repeated the abjuration, he stamped his foot on the ground, indignantly muttering, "Yet it does move, nevertheless!" It is certain, however, that on the 21st of June, he was found guilty of heresy, and condemned to imprisonment. His actual confinement in the dungeons of the "Holy Office" lasted only a few days; and after some months he was allowed to return to his country seat at Arcetri, near Florence—with a prohibition, however, against quitting that retirement, or even admitting the visits of his friends.

Galileo survived this treatment for several years, during which he continued the active pursuit of his philosophical studies, and even sent to the press another important work, his "Dialogues on the Laws of Motion." The rigor of his confinement, too, was after some time much relaxed; and although he never again left Arcetri (except once for a few months), he was permitted to enjoy the society of his friends in his own house. But other misfortunes now crowded upon his old age. His health had long been bad, and his fits of illness were now more frequent and painful than ever. In 1639, he was struck with total blindness. A few years before, the tie that bound him most strongly to life had been snapped by the death of his favorite daughter. Weighed down by these accumulated sorrows, on the 8th of January, 1642, the old man breathed his last, at the advanced age of seventy-eight.

BENJAMIN JONSON,

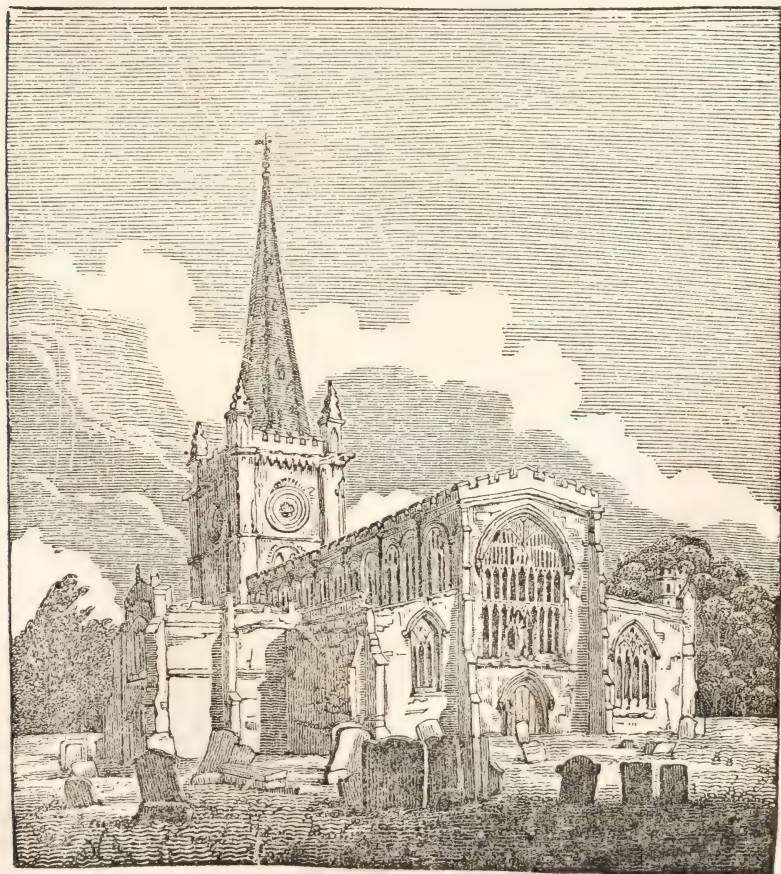
BENJAMIN JONSON, a celebrated dramatist, and the contemporary and friend of Shakspeare, was the posthumous son of a clergyman. He was born in Westminster, in 1574; at the grammar-school of which city he was placed under Camden at an early age; till his mother marrying again to a person who held the humble occupation of a bricklayer, young Ben, as he was familiarly called, was taken home abruptly by his father-in-law, and employed by him as an assistant in his trade. The ardent spirit of the future poet revolted against his condition; he fled from home and entered the army as a private soldier, in which capacity he served in the English army in Flanders. On his return he resumed his studies, and went to Cambridge; but, from the poverty of his circumstances, he was obliged to leave the university and take to the stage. At first he was not very successful, either as an actor or an author; and having the misfortune to kill another actor in a duel, he was taken up and imprisoned, and narrowly escaped with life. On being released from confinement he married, and recommenced writing for the stage, to which he was encouraged by Shakspeare, who performed in one of his pieces. In 1598 he produced his comedy of "Every Man in his Humor;" which was followed by a new play every year, till the reign of James I., when he was employed in the masques and entertainments at court. But, regardless of prudence, Ben joined Chapman and Marston in writing the comedy of "Eastward Hoe," which so grossly libelled the Scotch nation, that the authors were committed to prison, and had they not made a timely and humble submission for the offence, they would have lost their noses and ears in the pillory, according to their sentence. By his address, however, he soon contrived to reinstate himself in the favor of a monarch to whose pleasure the effusions of his muse had become necessary; and for the remainder of that reign he continued in high favor as a kind of superintendent of the court revels. In 1617 he was appointed poet-laureate, with a salary of about five hundred dollars, and a butt of canary wine yearly from the king's cellars. Want of economy, however, kept him constantly poor; although, in addition to the royal bounty, he had a pension from the city. He died August 16, 1637, and was buried in Westminster abbey, where a handsome tablet has been erected to his memory in Poet's Corner, inscribed, "O rare Ben Jonson." Dryden, speaking of the great rival dramatists, says, "Shakspeare was the Homer, or father, of our dramatic poets; Jonson was the Virgil, the pattern of elaborate writing; I admire him, but I love Shakspeare."



WILLIAM SHAKSPERE, the illustrious poet of nature, was born of a respectable family at Stratford-on-Avon, England, April 23, 1564. His father was a wool-comber, and of ten children the poet was the eldest. He was early removed from the grammar-school of Stratford, as business, and not learning, was to form the employment of his future life; but after being some time engaged in his father's trade, he married at the age of seventeen. At this time he unfortunately formed a connection with some dissipated companions, and in a thoughtless hour he accompanied them in deer-stealing, in the park of Sir Thomas Lucy, of Charlecote, near Stratford. The offence was again and again repeated, and a prosecution was consequently begun against the depredators; but the young poet, instead of conciliating the baronet by submission, wrote a ballad upon him, with such satirical bitterness, that it became unsafe for him to remain at Stratford. He fled therefore to London, to escape the law, and soon enrolled himself among the players. For a while he maintained himself in the character of an inferior performer; but the acquaintance which he formed with the stage was productive of the most noblest consequences. Though his name appears in the list of the actors of those days, it is not ascertained that he rose to any eminence in the profession, as Mr. Rowe asserts, that the Ghost in his own Hamlet was the highest character which he could venture to perform. He was, however, born not to act, but to delineate characters; not to play the hero, or the tyrant of a foreign muse, but to create characters and beings of his own, and with the pencil of nature, to portray in the most glowing colors, the various emotions of the heart. Without patronage from the great, and an exile from his native town, the poet at last burst to eminence and fame. His plays became popular, several of them were performed before the court, and Elizabeth was so pleased with his Falstaff, in the two parts of Henry IV., that she wished to

see the valiant knight in love, and the hint produced the inimitable drama of the *Merry Wives of Windsor*. These meritorious exertions for the entertainment of the court, and of the public, no doubt raised patrons to the poet; but little is known of them, and the name of Lord Southampton only is mentioned, as distinguishing him with his friendship and confidence. It is said that in one instance the generous lord gave the poet one thousand pounds, to enable him to complete a purchase which he had made. For some years Shakspeare, was allied with Ben Jonson, and the other wits and poets of the age, as manager of the playhouse, and after he had acquired a competent fortune, he retired to his native town, where he lived respected and beloved by his neighbors. The mulberry-tree which he planted in his garden afterward became an object of veneration, and when cut down by the hands of an avaricious proprietor, the wood was fashioned into various utensils, which sold for a high price, and were preserved with more than common affection, as a precious memorial of the immortal planter. Shakspeare made his will in the beginning of 1616, and died April 23, of the same year, on the anniversary of his birth, aged fifty-two.

His ashes repose within the walls of the fine old church of Stratford-on-Avon, exhibited in the accompanying engraving. The small house in which



Parish Church of Stratford-on-Avon.

the great poet was born, is still standing at a short distance from the old church. The following sketch of this interesting spot is from the pen of Washington Irving:

"I had come to Stratford on a poetical pilgrimage. My first visit was to the house where Shakspeare was born, and where, according to tradition, he was brought up to his father's craft of wool-combing. It is a small mean-looking edifice of wood and plaster, a true nestling-place of genius, which seems to delight in hatching its offspring in by-corners. The walls of its squalid chambers are covered with names and inscriptions, in every language, by pilgrims of all nations, ranks, and conditions, from the prince to the peasant; and present a simple, but striking instance of the spontaneous and universal homage of mankind to the great poet of nature.



Shakspeare's House, Stratford-on-Avon, as it appeared in 1788.

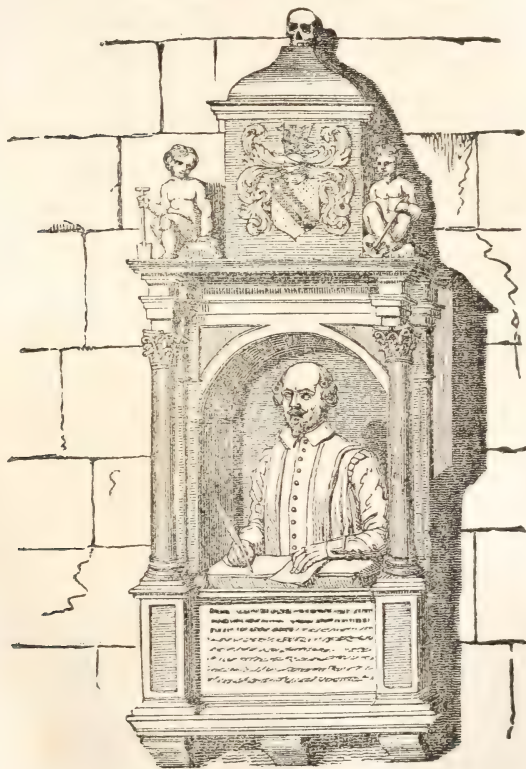
"The house is shown by a garrulous old lady in a frosty red face, lighted up by a cold, blue, anxious eye, and garnished with artificial locks of flaxen hair, curling from under an exceedingly dirty cap. She was peculiarly assiduous in exhibiting the relics with which this, like all other celebrated shrines, abounds. There was the shattered stock of the very matchlock with which Shakspeare shot the deer, on his poaching exploit. There, too, was his tobacco-box, which proves that he was a rival smoker of Sir Walter Raleigh; the sword also with which he played Hamlet; and the identical lantern with which Friar Laurence discovered Romeo and Juliet at the tomb! There was an ample supply also of Shakspeare's mulberry-tree, which seems to have as extraordinary powers of self-multiplication as the wood of the true cross; of which there is enough extant to build a ship-of-the-line.

"From the birth-place of Shakspeare, a few paces brought me to his grave. He lies buried in the chancel of the parish church, a large and venerable pile, mouldering with age, but richly ornamented. It stands on the banks of the Avon, on an embowered point, and separated by adjoining gardens from the suburbs of the town. Its situation is quiet and retired; the river runs murmuring at the foot of the church-yard, and the elms which grow upon its banks droop their branches into its clear bosom. An avenue of limes, the boughs of which are curiously interlaced, so as to form in summer an arched way of foliage, leads up from the gate of the yard to the church-porch. The graves are overgrown with grass; the gray tombstones, some of them nearly sunk into the earth, are half covered with moss, which has likewise tinted the reverend old building. Small birds have built their nests among the cornices and fissures of the walls, and keep up a continual flutter and chirping; and rooks are sailing and cawing about its lofty gray spire.

"We approached the church through the avenue of limes, and entered by a

gothic porch, highly ornamented, with carved doors of massive oak. The interior is spacious, and the architecture and embellishments superior to those of most country churches. There are several ancient monuments of nobility and gentry, over some of which hang funeral escutcheons, and banners dropping piecemeal from the walls. The tomb of Shakspeare is in the chancel. The place is solemn and sepulchral. Tall elms wave before the pointed windows, and the Avon, which runs at a short distance from the walls, keeps up a low perpetual murmur. A flat stone marks the spot where the bard is buried. There are four lines inscribed on it, said to have been written by himself, and which have in them something extremely awful. If they are indeed his own, they show that solicitude about the quiet of the grave, which seems natural to fine sensibilities and thoughtful minds :—

‘ Good friend, for Jesus’ sake, forbear
To dig the dust enclosed here.
Blessed be he that spares these stones,
And curst be he that moves my bones.’



Shakspeare's Tomb.

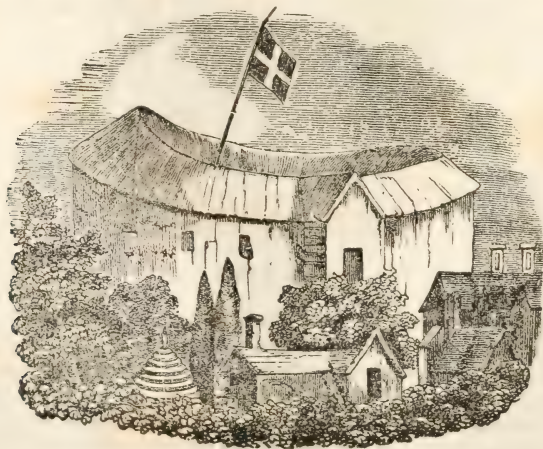
Just over the grave, in a niche of the wall, is a bust of Shakspeare, put up shortly after his death, and considered as a resemblance. The aspect is pleasant and serene, with a finely arched forehead ; and I thought I could read in it clear indications of that cheerful, social disposition, by which he was as much characterized among his contemporaries, as by the vastness of his genius. The inscription mentions his age at the time of his decease—fifty-two years ; an un

timely death for the world: for what fruit might not have been expected from the golden autumn of such a mind, sheltered as it was from the stormy vicissitudes of life, and flourishing in the sunshine of popular and royal favor.

"The inscription on the tombstone has not been without its effect. It has prevented the removal of his remains from the bosom of his native place to Westminster abbey, which was at one time contemplated. A few years since also, as some laborers were digging to make an adjoining vault, the earth caved in, so as to leave a vacant space almost like an arch, through which one might have reached into his grave. No one, however, presumed to meddle with his remains, so awfully guarded by a malediction; and lest any of the idle or the curious, or any collector of relics, should be tempted to commit depredations, the old sexton kept watch over the place for two days, until the vault was finished and the aperture closed again. He told me that he had made bold to look in at the hole, but could see neither coffin nor bones; nothing but dust. It was something, I thought, to have seen the dust of Shakspeare.

"Next to his grave are those of his wife, his favorite daughter, Mrs. Hall, and others of his family. On a tomb close by, also, is a full-length effigy of his old friend John Combe, of usurious memory; on whom he is said to have written a ludicrous epitaph. There are other monuments around, but the mind refuses to dwell on anything that is not connected with Shakspeare. His idea pervades the place; the whole pile seems but as his mausoleum. The feelings, no longer checked and thwarted by doubt, here indulge in perfect confidence; other traces of him may be false or dubious, but here is palpable evidence and absolute certainty. As I trod the sounding pavement, there was something intense and thrilling in the idea, that, in very truth, the remains of Shakspeare were mouldering beneath my feet. It was a long time before I could prevail upon myself to leave the place; and as I passed through the churchyard I plucked a branch from one of the yew-trees, the only relic that I have brought from Stratford."

The following engraving exhibits the Globe theatre, of which Shakspeare was one of the proprietors, previous to its destruction by fire, on the 29th of June, 1613. At the time of its conflagration, the performers were representing Shakspeare's play of Henry VIII., and on the king's entrance in the masquerade, some cannon were discharged the wadding of which set fire to the thatch, and the theatre was completely destroyed. Its site is now occupied by Barclay and Perkins' brewery, rendered memorable as the scene of the chastisement of the notorious Austrian Haynau, by the workmen in the establishment, in 1850



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

IN 1606, a corporation was formed in England for the purpose of establishing a colony in America. Many joined in the scheme from patriotic motives, as we now subscribe for railroads, turnpikes, or canals, not calculating upon exorbitant profits, but wishing to do something for public good. To carry their intention into effect, a vessel of only one hundred tons, and two small barks, were taken up. Captain Newport was commander, and Mr. Percy, a brother of the earl of Northumberland, was in the enterprise, but the soul of it was Captain John Smith. He has been justly called the "Father of Virginia," and what state would not be proud of such a founder? He had in his elements the "hardihood of antiquity," the lofty daring of the enamored crusader, and the science of the thoroughbred tactician of modern days, and all united to that amenity of manners which charms everywhere, and every one, and in every age, in polished or in savage life.

JOHN SMITH was born at Willoughby, in Lincolnshire, England, in 1579, and when he embarked in the cause of Virginia he was still in the prime of life under thirty years of age; and yet his fame had reached the ears of all Europe. His life had been one continued blaze of chivalry. He received a good early classical education; but his parents dying when he was only thirteen years of age, he was left to himself. He studied the art of war by himself, and visited France and Spain as a chevalier of honor and a soldier of fortune. At length he found himself in the Hungarian army, which country was then at war with the Turks, and was besieging the city of Regall. The besiegers were thought slow by the besieged. The ladies of Regall prepared to have some amusement, such as the dames of Damascus and Tunis had seen in the days of the crusades. Turkish pride took fire. The Christian army was challenged to produce a champion for a single combat, "head for head!" The challenge was accepted, and the Hungarian chiefs cast lots for the honor of meeting the Turk. Fate, disciplined by management, gave the honor to the English soldier of fortune. His prowess was known: the army had seen him couch his lance and bare his blade, and their hopes beat high for his success. The warriors met: all due courtesies were strictly observed on both sides. The combat ensued—the Christian triumphed. The head of the Turk was severed from his body, and knotted to the mane of the horse which had borne the conqueror. A friend of the deceased challenged the first day's conqueror; he had this right by the laws of honor. The head of another chieftain was the prize to the valor of the Christian knight. The challenge was now made by the victor, and he was a third time equally successful.

The ages of chivalry had not then gone for ever; for on the hero's return to England, youth, beauty, taste, fashion, wealth, and rank, clustered around him, to see one who had rivalled the best days of martial glory. He was modest, bland, and unmoved at all his honors. His whole heart was occupied by the love of glory; no other love was there; its pulses beat with generosity, gratitude, friendship, and patriotism, but with nothing of a softer nature.

Smith's mind was full of activity and enterprise; for he had no sooner landed on the American shores, than he prepared an exploring expedition, in order to give his employers a full account of the country, its soil, bays, harbors, rivers, produce, and all the statistics which might be gathered; but Wingfield and part of his companions turned their whole attention to searching for gold, which, as Smith foresaw, ended in mortification and poverty. He forewarned them of the effects of their folly, but in vain. From his forecast, he saved the colony; and by his fearlessness, good sense, and industry, he collected a greater mass



Pocahontas.

of information respecting the country he with others had come to colonize, than was ever before known.

In one of his tours of survey, Smith, after performing miracles of valor, was taken by the Indians and carried to Powhatan, the highest sachem of the country. He was sentenced to die. His head was laid on the block of stone, and the clubs were uplifted to beat him to death, when female tenderness came to his succor. Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, rushed between the executioners and their victim, and covered his head with her own. Poetry, painting, and sculpture, have tried to give immortality to this event: but they have added nothing to the moral beauty of the scene—that is inherent in the story; no meager terms can diminish its interest, no swell of language increase its lustre; even the cold chronologist stops to say something affecting upon it, and the annalist grows eloquent as he puts it upon his record. Smith was not only saved, but in two days afterward restored to liberty, to undertake new enterprises.

The next year Smith made his voyage toward the source of the Chesapeake. He sailed in an open boat three thousand miles. This was a much greater

Pocahontas saving the life of Captain John Smith.



feat than the Argonautic expedition. The Indians, full of sagacity, soon saw that he was the master-spirit of the colony, and they feared and respected him more than all the rest of the white men.

It was not until 1609 that Virginia, under a new charter, began to flourish; but still the colony had great difficulties to encounter. Powhatan had, from the imprudence of some of the white men, determined, at one blow, to extirpate the whole race. The Indian girl who was the preserver of Smith was now the tutelary angel of the whole body of the whites. She apprized the colonists of the intended massacre: she ran, after her father had retired to sleep, nine or ten miles through the woods, and returned without exciting his suspicion. Her sagacity was equal to her kindness, for she refused the valuable presents offered her for the services she had rendered, for they might have led to the suspicion of her having made the communication.

The next year, Smith having returned to England, his parental care and sage advice were wanting, and the whole colony came near starving. Their distress was so great, that they had made arrangements to leave the soil for ever, but were happily prevented by timely succors from England. In 1613, the Indian princess Pocahontas married Mr. Rolfe, one of the colonists, and embarked for England, where she met with a cordial reception. Smith sent a memorial to the queen, detailing all the great services she had rendered him and the infant colony. It was a most eloquent appeal to her sense of justice toward one so great and good. Pocahontas did not long live to enjoy the favors of the court or the society of her husband, for she died as she was about to embark for Virginia, leaving one child, from whom has descended several respectable and intellectual families (among whom was that of the celebrated John Randolph of Roanoke). Smith was the soul of truth and honor, and in the memorial referred to he ventured to assert that genius, virtue, and philanthropy, were not confined to civilized man, but were to be found everywhere and in every age; that affectionate hearts have beat in bosoms of every hue, whether the possessor roamed the forest or clustered in the city. The eulogy made by Smith upon Pocahontas to the queen should be preserved among those beautiful exhibitions of gratitude and affection which make up the gems of history, and attract the attention of successive generations.

New England is much indebted to John Smith, for he gave the first accurate account of that territory. In 1614, he examined the coast, and made a chart of it. His keen eye saw everything, and his descriptions were given with great simplicity. He changed some of the old names, such as Cape Cod to Cape James, and gave nomenclatures to places that had not been honored with names previously. Some of his new designations have since been altered, and many of the old ones resumed. Smith published his voyages to Virginia in 1608.

Smith made a second voyage to New England in 1615, and gave a description of the country in 1617. "The Trials of New England" was published several years after the works mentioned above. It has been affirmed that no historian, since his day, who has written upon Virginia or New England, knew half so much of the natural advantages of these sections of our country, and their capabilities of supporting a vigorous population, as he did.

Exhausted by incessant exertions and incredible labors, this soldier, mariner, admiral, governor, this magician over hearts, this elegant author, this patriot, returned to the land of his birth, and there in 1631 breathed his last, at the age of fifty-two, not having at the time of his death one acre of land in the New World, to which he had been a greater benefactor than any other mortal who had then coasted its shores or trod upon its soil! With the spirit of just calculation, he foretold the glories which were fast coming upon this country; all the visions of our growth crowded upon his soul. England has given him no monument, but America owes him a pyramid.



Portrait of Captain John Smith.

HENRY HUDSON.

Of the birth, parentage, or education, of this fearless and hardy navigator, but little is known. He was born in England, and had his home in the city of London. His most cherished and intimate companion was Captain John Smith, the founder of the colony of Virginia, a sketch of whom we have just given. They were much alike in temper and disposition, and hence a strong friendship between them. Hudson was also a married man, and had a son who shared the perils of all his voyages, and they at last probably perished together. The fact that so little was known of the early life of Hudson, however, is strong presumptive evidence that he was what the world calls a "self-made man."

Hudson's first voyage of discovery was undertaken under the direction of the London East India Company, for the purpose of finding a northern passage to India. He sailed May 11, 1607, and after a perilous voyage of four and a half months he returned without success. But though he failed in the main enterprise, his voyage was far from being useless. He had pressed his way farther north than any other navigator had been before, and opened a new and extensive field of commerce (that of the whale-fishery) to his countrymen. His employers were sufficiently pleased with the results of his voyage to trust him with a second adventure for the same purpose. Early in the following spring he made preparations, and on the 22d of April, with a crew of fifteen persons, among whom was his son John Hudson, sailed from London on his second voyage in search of a northeastern passage to India. This voyage resulted as did the other. After struggling for weeks with the ice, he was finally obliged to desist, and return again to England.

Upon Hudson's return, the company that employed him were unwilling to make another effort. But Hudson was still bent upon the great purpose for which he had been laboring. He offered his services to and was employed by the Dutch East India Company to make another effort. He sailed on the 25th of March, 1609, in the *Half-Moon*, and in about a month doubled the North cape; and pressing on, was soon on the coast of Nova Zembla. Head-winds, fog, and ice, here met him again, and after contending against them for a fortnight he was obliged to give up the hope of reaching India by any northeastern passage.

But Hudson was not discouraged. He had heard of America and the great discoveries made there, and he thought, by sailing west, he might make some discovery that would repay his employers for his failure. Besides, he had a map, given him by his old friend Captain Smith, which had a strait marked south of Virginia, indicating a passage to the Pacific ocean, or Great South sea, as it was then called, and he might reach the East Indies by this passage. He therefore sailed westward, reaching the coast of Newfoundland early in July; and passing on, he arrived in Penobscot bay on the 18th. After making observations, and repairing his vessel, he sailed from here July 26th. He passed Cape Cod, Nantucket, and Martha's Vineyard (we speak of these places as they are now known), and on the 18th of August reached Chesapeake bay. Here he was near the mouth of James river, Virginia, where the colony of his friend Captain John Smith was settled. He proceeded south far enough to ascertain that Captain Smith was in error about a passage to the Pacific, and changed his course to the north. August 28th, he discovered Delaware bay, on the 2d of September he spied the highlands of Nevisink, and on the afternoon of the 3d he cast anchor within Sandy Hook, and it is said he first landed on Coney island. After a week spent in exploring below, he entered and cast anchor in the bay of New York. Here he was visited by the natives, but though he traded with them, he did not permit them to come on board.



Landing of Henry Hudson.

September 12, Hudson with a heart full of hope weighed anchor and commenced the exploration of the beautiful stream which since bears his name. What must have been the feelings of the great navigator as he looked upon the waters of that stream as they came rolling to the sea! It was certain that he had discovered a new and unknown region, which might in some degree repay his employers; and then, this river, coming from the north, might prove the long-desired passage to the gems and spices of India. He was ten days in passing up the river as far as where Albany now stands. The shallowness of the soundings prevented his going farther, and on the 23d he commenced retracing his course; and though disappointed in not finding this the passage to the East, he was cheered by the reflection that he had passed up this noble stream one hundred and fifty miles, and discovered a beautiful and fertile region for the future enterprise of his employers. He reached the mouth of the river on the 2d of October, and on the 4th he weighed anchor, passed through the bay, and put out to sea on his return home. He reached England on the 7th of November, after an absence of over seven months. He sent the journal and chart of his discoveries at once to Holland, and the next year the Dutch were reaping the fruit of his arduous enterprise.

Hudson's old employers, the London Company, now called him again into their service; and he sailed April 17, 1610, in the ship *Discovery*, on his fourth voyage. His aim now was to discover a northwest passage to India. On the 11th of May he reached the eastern shores of Iceland. He coasted along its southern shore, and after struggling for more than a fortnight against head winds and ice, on the 30th made a harbor on the western part of the island. The natives of this island were poor and miserable, but they treated him very kindly. Here Hudson discovered that he had about him some dissatisfied men. One, of them, Juet the mate, spoke lightly of the enterprise, discouraging the men, and trying to destroy their confidence in Hudson, calling up their fears by telling them of the hazards of the voyage, and talked boldly about turning the head of the ship homeward.

Hudson sailed from Iceland June 1, passing south, and doubling the southern

point of Greenland. Crossing Davis' straits, he soon began to encounter floating mountains of ice, till at length his ship was completely surrounded by them. There is no scene in the life of Hudson showing greater firmness and presence of mind than this. With his ship thus hemmed in on every side, and a murmuring and desperate crew on board, he might naturally have exhibited symptoms of fear. But his mind rose with the occasion. He brought around him these desperate sailors, calmed their fears, and inspired them with new courage. They all set to work to bring the ship from the ice and save themselves. They at length found themselves in a clear sea, and kept on their course.

On the 8th of July he entered the straits which bear his name, and kept his course west, and was three weeks passing through them. 'This was a new world around them, and as he passed on he gave names to the new bays, capes, and islands, which fell under his observation. Entering the great inland sea which bears his name (Hudson's bay), he was full of confident hope that the long-sought-for passage to the East was before him. He spent some three months in making observations, and searching for some eastern outlet to the bay, in vain. It was now the 10th of November; freezing weather had set in, and the vessel became completely fastened in the ice. A long and dreary winter now set in. As his stock of provisions was small, the crew were necessarily put on short allowance. They also suffered from the cold, many of the men having their feet frozen, and being rendered thereby lame. These circumstances added to the ill feeling of the crew. In this way, eking out their stock of provisions by the addition of "beast, fish, or fowl," as opportunity offered, they remained till the sea was sufficiently melted to admit of their departure. It was about the middle of June when they prepared to leave. It was now that the mutiny that had so long smouldered in secret broke out into open revolt. Hudson was seized, his hands tied behind him, and, with his son, six disabled sailors, and the carpenter, who would not leave him, set adrift in an open boat. A more heartless crime than this can hardly be thought of. It was not only murder, but murder under the worst circumstances. The three ringleaders in it had been treated by Hudson with especial favor, and they repaid the kindness of their benefactor by this act of base ingratitude. To make the crime still worse, they took the sick and the lame, and gave these suffering men to the rough winds and cold waters of the northern sea, with scarcely a morsel to subsist upon. It would have been mercy to have killed them all at once. And this horrible death even the young son of Hudson was to share, though his tender years might have pleaded in his behalf. But the three ringleaders spoken of above met with a speedy retribution. Two of them were killed by savages (where they had stopped to obtain provisions), and the third, Juet the mate, with others of the crew, died of starvation; and but a remnant lived to reach England, and tell the tale of their sin and suffering. Two ships were subsequently sent out to learn the fate of Hudson, and possibly relieve him. They returned the next year, having failed in their object.

No tidings of Henry Hudson were ever more received. Whether he persevered till he reached Cape Digges, and was there murdered by savages; whether he perished in the ice, or died by famine, or was swallowed by the waves, no man can tell. Whatever was his fate, however, he has left behind him a bright and honorable name. Though not a native of our land, his discoveries make him ours. His daring adventures were performed in the New World, where we dwell, and therefore our country has not been unmindful of perpetuating his memory: she has written his name upon one of her finest streams. His best monument is indeed in this Western World, for it is upon the continent of North America that a bay, a strait, a city, and a river, all bear the name of HUDSON.



VINCENT DE PAUL.

VINCENT DE PAUL was born in the year 1576, at Ranquines, a little hamlet of Pouy, not far from the Pyrenees. Vincent's parents were owners of a cottage and some fields; and he, the third son in a family of six children, was employed in his youth to take charge of the few sheep and swine which constituted a chief portion of the available property of a poor but industrious household. Vincent, in his youth, exhibited traits of a thoughtful and intelligent mind. He was sent to school in the town of Acqs; and by the time he was sixteen years of age, procured a situation in the family of a magistrate of Pouy as tutor, and was thus enabled to reduce the expenses of his own family in contributing to his education. But his father, on his deathbed, enjoined his family to continue their exertions to enable Vincent to complete his studies.

Vincent realized his family's hopes by becoming an eminent man; but they

were disappointed in other respects. Many years after his father's death when he had risen to considerable distinction, he visited Pouy, and took up his abode with the cure of the village. He then assembled his relations together, told them that it was his determination to live and die a poor man, and that it was his conviction that money given by ecclesiastics to their families seldom prospered.

Vincent went to Toulouse, and entered the university ; but finding his finances insufficient, he opened a school in the neighboring village of Buset. He continued, during seven years alternately master and scholar ; giving lessons to acquire the means of living, and receiving, at the same time, the learning necessary to qualify him as an ecclesiastic. In 1660, when he was twenty-four years of age, he was ordained by the bishop of Perigueux.

Five years afterward he went to Marseilles to receive a legacy which had been left to him. On his return the ship in which he was a passenger was taken by the Turks, and he remained in slavery several years ; but having made his master a convert to Christianity, he obtained his liberty and returned to France. On his arrival in Paris, he took up his residence in the Faubourg St. Germain near the Hôpital de la Charité. He now devoted all his leisure to the service of the sick in the hospital—and from this period may be dated the commencement of that career of active benevolence which distinguished his long life. His patience and strength of character were put to a severe test about this period. While travelling in the Bordelois, he lodged at Sore. A magistrate who occupied the same apartment was robbed of a sum of money, and accused Vincent as the thief. As his name had become somewhat public, from his singular adventures, the accusation became generally known. There was no proof that he had been guilty ; yet the imputation hung over him for six years. The real thief being imprisoned for another offence, confessed ; and Vincent's accuser cleared his character by making him a public reparation.

In 1611, he was made cure of Clichy, near Paris, where he acquired his first ministerial reputation. The general standard of character among the great body of the French clergy was at that time very low ; and the spectacle of a priest devoting his whole faculties to the duties of his office and preaching with great earnestness and zeal, drew marked attention toward him. He raised subscriptions among the opulent friends for the rebuilding of his parish church ; and established a society or confraternity for the purpose of visiting and relieving his poor parishioners.

In 1613, he quitted his charge and entered into the family of Philip Emanuel de Gondi, Count de Joigni, general of the galleys of France, for the purpose of educating the three sons of the count. This employment opened to Vincent a new sphere of life and a new field of labor. During the period of his residence in the family of the Count de Joigni, a brief interval occurs, in which he acted as cure of Chatillon, in Bresse, where, owing to the fearful ignorance, depravity, and poverty, that prevailed, his exertions, especially during the prevalence and famine, endeared him to the inhabitants.

As commander of the royal galleys, the Count de Joigni had occasion frequently to visit Marseilles, and Vincent very often accompanied him. The situation of the unhappy criminals condemned to the galleys, was at this time most horrible. When the galleys were not ready to receive them, they were crowded into dungeons, with very little air or light, and were fed on bread and water. Covered with vermin, ignorant and ferocious, they seemed more like savage beasts than human beings. Vincent began the work of reformation by introducing himself to the criminals as their friend, one who felt for their sufferings, and was anxious to relieve them. He soon gained their confidence ; the improvements which he effected induced the count to mention the matter to Louis XIII., who made Vincent almoner-general of the galleys of France ; and

he received large subscriptions to enable him to carry forward his charitable designs.

The amelioration of the condition of the criminals condemned to the galleys was the first great work of Vincent de Paul: the establishment of his missionary college was the second. In this work he was efficiently supported by the Count and Countess de Joigni. The "congregation of the mission" was intended to afford a supply of teachers for the inhabitants of the French provinces, the members of which were considered as auxiliaries to the regular clergy, and were to act in subordination to the authorities of the church. The project was formally approved by the pope. The infant institution took up its first residence in the college des Bons-Enfans, and afterward in the priory of St. Lazarus. The beginnings of the institution were small: but Vincent lived to see his "Lazarist" missionaries visiting the Hebrides, Ireland, Madagascar, &c., and to be able to exclaim, in his old age, "Behold it now spread over the whole world." But not only did he exert himself for the laity: he labored to reform the clergy, the depravation of whose manners, he said, was "a principal cause of the ruin of the church." We may dissent from his opinions, and withhold our approbation from the manner in which he carried out some of his numerous projects, as deficient in judgment and effectiveness; but no man can refuse him the praise of uniting in his character the spirit and activity of a Howard and a Wesley. Had there been more men of his stamp in France, the horrors of the first French revolution might have been greatly mitigated.

During the reign of Louis XIII., Vincent de Paul was in high reputation. He attended that monarch in his last illness. His example stimulated both the really charitably disposed, and those who were actuated by the mere impulses of vanity; the latter class was by far the most numerous, and often smothered the good that existed, in many of the schemes that were projected. Under the sanction of Vincent, Mademoiselle le Gras began the institution of "Les Sœurs Grises," (so called from the dress that they wore, which was gray), better known as the Sisters of Charity. He also established a religious association of ladies for the service of the poor in the Hotel Dieu; and moved by the consideration of the number of infants which, in the middle of the seventeenth century, were exposed in the streets of Paris, he procured the assistance of the ladies and the Sisters of Charity, to establish the Foundling hospital. During the reign of Louis XIII., a large portion of France was exposed to all the horrors of war, pestilence, and famine. For successive years Vincent de Paul exerted himself with untiring perseverance, raised large sums of money, with the distribution of which he was intrusted, and which he regularly remitted to Picardie, Champagne, and Lorraine, for the relief of the inhabitants. At one time he obtained an interview with Richelieu, and after representing the frightful state of the country, besought him to "give peace to France." The haughty minister was touched, he dismissed Vincent kindly, assuring him that peace would soon be obtained, if it depended only on his own wishes.

During the minority of Louis XIV., the queen-regent, Anne of Austria, instituted an ecclesiastical council, composed of the cardinal Mazarin, the chancellor, the grand penitentiary of Paris, and Vincent de Paul: the latter was appointed its president. But though he was honest, plain, and of a mild disposition, he occasionally felt what it was to be exposed to the rivalries and intrigues of courtiers; and his strong attachment to the sacerdotal authority, an attachment which he evinced by implicit submission to all whom he considered his spiritual superiors, involved him in controversy with the Jansenists.

Vincent de Paul died in 1660, aged eighty-four, at the house of St. Lazarus, the headquarters of his missionary establishment. He was canonized by Pope Clement XII., in 1737.

THE EMPEROR JEHANGHIR.

THE emperor Akber, a biographical sketch of whom is given some pages back, was succeeded on the throne of the Moguls by his son SELIM, who assumed the presumptuous title of JEHANGHIR, or "Conqueror of the World;" and, although not equal to his illustrious father in ability, was a great sovereign, under whose dominion the empire lost none of its power and splendor. The early part of his reign was distinguished by his marriage with one of the most beautiful and talented women that ever appeared in the East, the celebrated Nur Jehan, who is better known, in tales of fiction, by the name of Nur Mahal, or the "Light of the Harem."

Few women, perhaps, ever enjoyed so high a consideration at a Mohammedan court, or took so large a share in the government, as Nur Jehan. Her ascendancy over the emperor was unbounded; he consulted her on all affairs of importance; her name was even associated with his on the coin; and his chief happiness seemed to consist in exalting and surrounding her with honors such as appertain to a reigning sovereign. Nur Jehan made a good use of her influence; and her father (the son of a Persian nobleman), who was raised to the office of grand vizier, was one of the best ministers that ever ruled at the court of an eastern prince.

It was during the reign of Jehanghir, that the English, in 1608, made their first but unsuccessful attempt to obtain a settlement in India. In the year 1615, however, a regular embassy was sent to the court of Jehanghir, conducted by Sir Thomas Roe, who landed at Surat, and proceeded at once to Ajmir, where the emperor was then residing. This gentleman, who remained for some time at the court of Jehanghir, obtained with difficulty the monarch's permission for the establishment of an English factory at Surat, which was immediately erected, and a regular trade opened with this port, the first British station in India.

As Jehanghir advanced in years, his life was embittered by the rebellion of his son, Shah Jehan, who openly raised his standard, and seized on the provinces of Bengal and Bahar, from which he sent a body of troops to secure the fortress of Allahabad; but the emperor despatched an army, under the command of Mohabat Khan, to intercept his march. A battle took place, near Allahabad, in which Shah Jehan was defeated, and obliged to seek shelter in the Deccan. All his former adherents now deserted him; and finding that there was no hope of establishing his claim by force, he wrote an humble and repentant letter to his father, who demanded that he should send his two sons, Dara Sheko and Aurungzebe, as hostages for his future good behavior. The young princes were accordingly sent to their grandfather; but before the monarch had granted a pardon to his rebellious son, his own career was brought to a close, his death being preceded by some remarkable events.

Mohabat Khan, the chief commander of the army, had incurred the displeasure of the empress, whose unbounded influence over her husband empowered her to ruin any individual who might be imprudent enough to excite her enmity. Besides which, he had betrothed his daughter to a youth of noble family, without the emperor's consent; and Jehanghir, who was in no frame of mind to overlook such an offence, vented his wrath on the unoffending bridegroom, whom he caused to be beaten almost to death, having previously seized the dowry he had received from Mohabat. The indignant father-in-law, determined to revenge the insult, proceeded at once, with five thousand Rajputs, to the tents of his royal master, who was encamped on the banks of the Hydaspes, but had sent his troops over the river, intending to follow in the course of the



Portrait of Jehanghir.—From a Miniature painted in India.

day. The monarch was reposing on a couch, when a rude noise disturbed his slumbers, and starting up, he saw himself surrounded by armed men; and recognising Mohabat Khan, exclaimed, "Traitor, what means this?" Mohabat, kneeling before him with a look of deep humility, declared that no treason was intended, but begged that his majesty would rise and mount his elephant, that the people might see that he was safe; and as Jehanghir had no means of resistance, he was obliged to comply, and rode in the midst of the soldiers, by the side of Mohabat, to the tent of that chief, who had thus boldly made him a prisoner.

No sooner was Nur Jehan informed of the capture of her lord, than she set out, in disguise, to join the army on the opposite side of the river; and although the bridge was guarded by Mohabat's troops, she was allowed to cross, as the guards had been ordered to let any persons pass that way, but not to let them return. The beautiful amazon now appeared, mounted on an elephant, and armed with a bow and arrows, at the head of the imperial troops, leading the way to storm the bridge; but the Rajputs, expecting this movement, had destroyed it, and easily drove back those who attempted to swim the ford, among whom was the empress herself. The deliverance of the emperor was, however, shortly accomplished by the contrivance of Nur Jehan, but he died very soon afterward; and Shah Jehan, with the powerful support of Mohabat Khan, took possession of the throne, in the year 1627.

The splendor of the Mogul empire was never so great, even in the time of Akber, as during the reign of SHAH JEHAN, whose taste for profuse expenditure exhibited itself in every possible form. He built new palaces in all the principal cities, and lavished vast sums of money on shows and festivals. His whole establishment was on an unparalleled scale of grandeur, and he was perhaps the wealthiest of all the Mogul dynasty. He reigned thirty-one years, when he was dethroned by the usurpation of his son Aurungzebe, in 1658, as related on a subsequent page, in a sketch of that celebrated chief.

JOHN SELDEN.

THIS learned statesman was born at Salvington, in Sussex, England, December 16, 1584. He was educated at Chichester school, and Hart hall, Oxford, after which he entered at Clifford's inn, and two years afterward removed to the Inner Temple. He early distinguished himself as an antiquarian, and in 1610, published *Jani Anglorum Facis Altera, et Duello*, or the Origin of Single Combat. Besides other pieces, he published *Titles of Honor*, 1614, a work of great merit, and in 1618, appeared his *History of Tithes*, which, as it censured the ignorance and laziness of the clergy, gave great offence to that body. The work was attacked by several writers, especially Montague, afterward bishop of Norwich, and the author at last was obliged to make submission before the lords of the privy council for this offensive publication. His opinions in favor of the privileges of the house of commons, and his opposition to the measures of the court, drew upon him in 1621, the displeasure of King James, who committed him to the custody of the sheriff of London, from which he was liberated by the interference of his friend Bishop Andrews. In 1623, he was chosen member of parliament for Lancaster, and two years after for Great Bedwin, and in the house he distinguished himself by his attack on the character of Buckingham, and became one of the managers of his impeachment. His opposition to the measures of the court continued, and for the freedom of his sentiments he was, in 1629, arrested with several other members, and upon refusing



John Selden.

to make submission to the court he was sent to the king's-bench prison. He was again sent into confinement the following year; but his sufferings in the cause of public liberty were rewarded by the parliament of 1646, who voted him five thousand pounds for his losses. Though apparently much engaged in politics, Selden was laboriously employed in literary pursuits. In 1634, he defended, in his *Mare Clausum*, the privileges of the English, and their rights in the herring-fishery, against Grotius's work called *Mare Liberum*. He was, in 1640, elected member for Oxford university, and in 1642, it was intended by the king's ministers to remove Lord Lyttleton from the seals, and to give them to him, as, though he opposed the measures of the court, he was a sincere friend to the just prerogatives of the crown. But the offer was not made, as his delicate constitution, and his great love of ease prevented his exertions, and would have induced him to decline the honorable office. In 1643, he became one of the lay members of the Westminster assembly of divines, and he about this time took the covenant, and was made by the parliament keeper of the records of the tower. But, however, though he continued member of the house, and was in 1644, one of the twelve commissioners of the admiralty, he did not concur in the violent measures of the parliament, when the Icon Basilice appeared, Cromwell in vain solicited him to employ his talents to write against it. He died 30th of November, 1654. His valuable library was given by his executors to the university of Oxford. As a scholar Selden ranks very high. He was not only skilled in the Hebrew and oriental languages, but he was acquainted with all laws, divine and human, and in the stores of a most retentive memory he had treasured up whatever is valuable, interesting, and important, in ancient and modern literature. He was, as Grotius states him, the glory of the English nation, and as Whitelocke says, his mind was as great as his learning, and he was as hospitable and as generous as any man. He was a person, as Clarendon has observed, whom no character can flatter, or transmit in any expressions equal to his merit and virtue. His learning was stupendous, and if he had some infirmities they were weighed down with wonderful and prodigious abilities and excellences, in the other scale.



JOHN WINTHROP.

JOHN WINTHROP, the first governor of Massachusetts, was born at Groton, in Suffolk county, England, June 12, 1587, and was descended from an ancient and honorable family. His grandfather was an eminent lawyer in the reign of Henry VIII., and attached to the Reformation. His father was of the same profession, and the subject of this sketch himself was bred a lawyer, in which character he was eminent for both integrity and abilities. Indeed, he must have had the fairest reputation, for he was appointed a justice of the peace at eighteen years of age.

When the design of settling a colony in New England was undertaken in 1630, Mr. Winthrop was chosen by general consent to conduct the enterprise. His estate, amounting to the value of six or seven hundred pounds sterling a year, he converted into money, and embarked his all to promote the settlement of New England. Previous to the emigration under Winthrop, attempts had been made to settle the country about Massachusetts bay, but which succeeded to a very limited extent. The emigrants were comparatively few in numbers, and were intended more for the advantage of the fisheries, and the fur-trade, than for the purposes of permanent settlement. And most of them had either returned to England, or perished through the hardship encountered, or from disease incident to a wild, uncultivated region; and a small number of colonists at Salem, and here and there an isolated family, without any effective organization, were all that remained of them. But, under the direction of Winthrop, a phalanx of emigrants was enlisted, whose numbers, determined character, and moral and intellectual worth, should insure the permanent settlement of the colony. A nobler body of men never left their native soil to colonize a new land. On March 29, 1630, they sailed from Southampton, and, after a protracted voyage, arrived in the harbor of Salem on the 14th of June. Want of food and shelter, and a change in the habits of life, which with many of them had been those of ease and comfort; produced the usual distressing consequences; and in the first month from eighty to one hundred died. The hopes of

religion, the firmness of the leaders, and the high motives by which they were inspired, carried them through this period of heavy trial. They spread themselves over the coast, a large proportion going to Charlestown. Part of these, with the governor, were attracted by a situation at the very head of the bay, called by the Indians Shawmut. They here founded a town, which (from its being located on three rounded eminences, swelling from the water's brink) they first called Trimountain, from which has arisen the modern name of Tremont. The place was afterward, as a compliment to the Rev. John Cotton, who had emigrated from a town of that name in Lincolnshire, England, called Boston, under which name it has become a populous and flourishing city. The three eminences have since been known as Copp's, Fort, and Beacon hills.

Winthrop was eleven times chosen governor of the colony of Massachusetts bay. His son John, and his grandson Fitz-John (who was a captain in Colonel Reed's regiment at the restoration in 1660), were successively governors of Connecticut colony; and Wait-Still, another grandson, was chief-justice of Massachusetts.

Governor Winthrop died March 26, 1649, in the sixty-second year of his age. He rendered the colony important services by his judicious administration of its affairs, and by his good example in all the relations of social life. He spent his whole estate in the public service. It is said that he denied himself many of the elegancies of life, that he might give an example of frugality and temperance, and might exercise liberality without impoverishing his family. He ever conducted himself with such address and unshaken rectitude as to render his character universally respected among his contemporaries, and his memory dear to posterity. He kept a minute account of the events of the colony down to the time of his death, which has been published, and is of great use to the historian.

NICHOLAS POUSSIN.

NICHOLAS POUSSIN, a celebrated French historical painter, was born at Andely, in Normandy, in 1594. He received his first instructions in the art of painting from Ferdinand Elle, a portrait-painter, for a few months, but afterward he spent about a month with L'Allemand; yet finding both these artists incapable of instructing him in a manner suitable to those elevated ideas he had conceived of the art, he applied himself to study after the works of such masters as were confessedly of the first rank. By these means his improvement was so considerable, that it procured him some employment; but as his utmost ambition was to see Rome, he hastened as much as possible to finish a few paintings in which he was engaged, and immediately travelled to Italy.

Sandrart says that Poussin began his studies at Rome in 1622, in the twenty-eighth year of his age; and other very authentic writers affirm that his arrival in Rome was in 1624, when he was thirty. But in that city he had many difficulties to contend with, by the death of his principal friend the cavalier Marino. He applied himself, however, with redoubled industry to his studies, and copied several of the works of Titian, which for a time improved his style of coloring; and also attentively observed the excellences of Raphael and Domenichino, from whose works, assisted by his love for the antique, he imbibed that correct taste of design and that truth of expression which animate and adorn all his compositions. He indeed devoted almost his whole attention to the antique statues and bas-reliefs, which appeared to him more worthy of curious and critical observation than the finest efforts of modern genius in paint-



Nicholas Poussin.

ing; for he seemed persuaded that every grace and beauty of the human form was comprised in those ancient sculptures, which have justly been the admiration of the judicious in all subsequent ages.

The first subjects painted by Poussin were bacchanalians, satyrs, and nymphs, which he introduced in his landscapes, the stories being principally taken from Ovid; and he enriched his scenes with elegant buildings, which he designed after those magnificent edifices which are in Rome and its environs. But afterward his subjects were sometimes taken from the sacred history, and oftener from the Greek and Roman—in which he always observed the costume strictly, with an equal degree of judgment and learning. As he had been exceedingly struck with the works of Titian at his first going to Rome, he endeavored to imitate his coloring; but when once he gave himself up to an enthusiastic admiration of Raphael and the antique, he altered his tone of color entirely, and lost all that warmth in his carnations which appeared in his early productions. His invention was as happy as it was lively, and he designed with spirit and correctness; though he was not always happy in the disposition of his figures, which were too often distributed in the same line, by his want of studying the *chiaro-scuro* as he ought. In perspective and architecture he was perfectly accomplished, which enabled him to give an air of grandeur to his landscapes that captivates the most judicious. The scenes and situations of his landscapes are excessively pleasing, and they receive a peculiar beauty from the novelty of the objects he introduces, from the variety of his trees, buildings, and other ornamental incidents; every part being lightly and delicately touched, and exhibiting at once great truth and equal judgment.

By this superior fondness for the antique, the historical compositions of Poussin are very correct; and the airs and attitudes of his figures are generally beautiful, though not always graceful: but, by his neglecting to study nature with a proportionable attention, his airs and attitudes want that variety which perpetually entertains and delights us. The coloring of Poussin did not in any degree correspond with his other powers in the art: it is cold, feeble, and hard,

and more similar to the marble of those antiques which he rapturously admired than to the carnations of nature, or the fleshly tints of other eminent painters. And, either from his being unacquainted with the true principles of coloring, or despising the art of coloring in comparison with design, he seems never even to have endeavored to alter his style in that respect, though he could not but feel the force of the coloring of Titian and Guido.

At his return to Rome from Paris, whither he had been honorably invited by Louis XIII., Poussin painted for the prince Justiniani an historical picture representing "Herod's Cruelty," an admirable composition, in which he gave to every character such an expression as could not but excite pity and terror in every beholder; and he afterward finished the celebrated pictures of the "Seven Sacraments" of the Romish church, on which he bestowed the labor of several years. Sandrart asserts that Poussin painted those designs more than once, as there is one undoubted original set of them at Rome, and another at Paris. After perfecting that expensive work, he designed the applauded history of "Germanicus Dying," which is well known to every lover of the art. At St. Germain's, the altarpiece representing the "Last Supper" is from the hand of Poussin. The design is noble, the composition in the highest degree accurate, the expression strong and elegant, and the whole full of spirit. In the gallery of the prince della Torre, at Naples, are to be seen "The Annunciation" and "The Flight into Egypt," both of them excellent for the composition, expression, and beauty of design; but, in respect of the coloring, defective, like his other works. None of the designs of Poussin have been more universally admired than that of Germanicus; and if he had never painted another picture, he would have gained immortal honor by that alone. He never engaged in grand works, but confined himself to easel pictures, for which he had a perpetual demand; and his method was to fix the price expected for each on the back of the picture, which was readily paid.

There is a remarkable difference in the performances of Nicholas Poussin; for many of those which he executed in the declining years of his life are much inferior to those performed in his prime and middle period. The same taste, and the same genius, appear in all; but the handling discovers an unsteadiness that is not observable in his earlier works, as if he continued to paint when his hand was unequal to his genius. But, upon the whole, he is allowed to have been an admirable artist; and the immense price which his pictures produce in every part of Europe is an incontestable proof of his established merit. He died in 1665, aged seventy-one.

JOHN HAMPDEN.

THIS illustrious patriot was born in London, in 1594, of a very ancient family. He manifested an early love of letters, and was educated at Magdalen college, Oxford, after which he studied law in the Inner Temple. In 1619, at the age of twenty-five, he married Elizabeth, daughter of Edmund Symeon, lord of the manor of Pyrton. He was soon after elected to parliament, and in 1636 had the boldness, alone and unsupported, to resist the authority of King Charles I. in levying ship-money—an abuse of power which had been abrogated by Magna Charta. Though he lost his cause, the spirit and courage he manifested won for him unbounded popularity. Thus proclaimed by the people a patriot, he was now regarded as the leader of the popular party in the house of commons against the king. In 1637, we find him, in company with

Oliver Cromwell, John Pym, and other puritans, embarked on board a ship in the Thames, about to sail for America; but a proclamation from the king compelled them to abandon the design of fleeing from the tyrannies and persecutions to which their sentiments exposed them.

In 1642, Hampden was formally accused of high-treason by the king, together with several others of the popular leaders; but the commons refused to surrender the accused, and the king, apprehensive of danger from the enraged multitude, sought safety in flight. On the breaking out of the civil war, the year, following, Hampden took up arms in defence of the rights of the people. In the field he showed himself courageous, intrepid, and active, but his career in glory was soon cut short by a fatal wound which he received on the field of Chalgrove, on the morning of June 18, 1643.

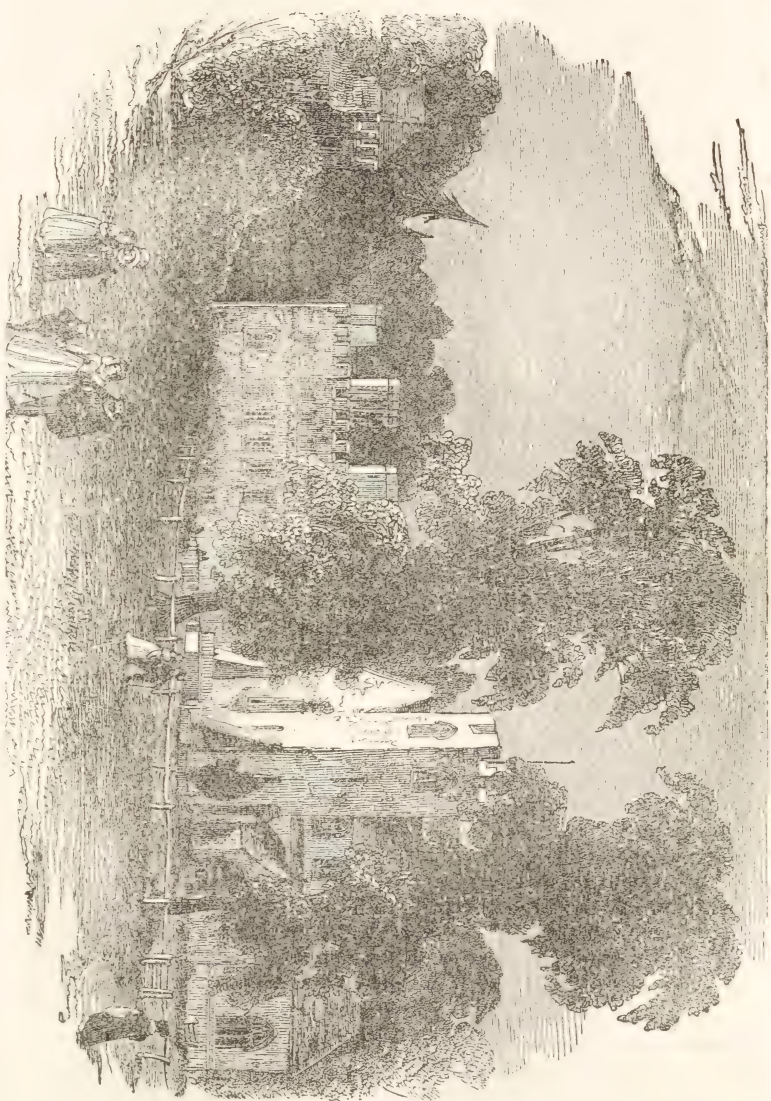
There is a tradition preserved in the neighborhood, that when Hampden, for the first time in his life, left the field of battle before its termination, he was seen with his head bending down over the saddle, and his hands resting on his horse's back, moving in the direction of Pyrtton house, the residence of his father-in-law. "There," says Lord Nugent, "he in youth had married the first wife of his bosom, and thither now would have gone to die. But the situation of the enemy's cavalry prevented this, and he turned and rode across the grounds of Hazleby toward Thame. A brook crossed his way, which, summoning all his remaining strength, and setting spurs to his horse, he safely leaped. On reaching Thame, he was conducted to the house of one Ezekiel Brown, where in a few days he died."

The manor-house of the patriot in Great Hampden parish, is still standing, as is shown in our engraving. Mrs. S. C. Hall, who lately visited it, thus speaks of its present appearance: "It is impossible to imagine anything more still than this hallowed spot, hid away at the back of that chalky range, the Chilterns, which bound on one side the rich vale of Aylesbury. The flower-garden, through which we passed, seemed as if called into existence by the wand of the enchanter; the lingering roses, the heavy-headed dahlias, the bright-toned autumn flowers, looked so lonely in their beauty! We almost feared to speak in such deep solitude. A human footstep, the bark of a dog, the song of a bird, the tinkle of a sheep-bell, would have been a relief—until we had drunk deeply of the spirit of the place; and then, as thoughts and memories crowded around us, we felt the luxuries of the solemn quiet, and that sound here would be as sacrilege. Passing a low sort of postern entrance, we walked beneath an arch, starred over by jessamine, and stood in front of the extensive mansion, added to and enlarged by various proprietors, and at one time displaying some goodly architecture of the age of Elizabeth; the stucco, as if ashamed of its usurpation, beginning to drop away from the red brick of which the house is built. Save the 'natural decay' which must progress in all uninhabited dwellings, we saw nothing that told of the 'ruin' which comes of carelessness or neglect."

The church of Great Hampden is situated immediately behind the mansion, and contains various memorials of the Hampden family. During the period that Hampden spent in the privacy of his residence here, when disgusted with the aspect of affairs he withdrew a while from public life before the dissolution of parliament in 1628-'9, and while he was doubtless preparing himself for the more arduous contest that was yet to be fought, his first wife died. She lies in the chancel of the church; a beautiful epitaph on a plain black marble stone records her virtues and her husband's regret, in his own affectionate language. Here, too, his own ashes repose. By his will he directed a stone to be laid over his grave, with the figures of himself, his wife, and his children, engraved upon it.

Did we know nothing of the life of Hampden, we could not but revere and

Manor-House of Hampden, and Church where Hampden is interred.



love the memory of the man whose dying words breathed forth so pure a spirit. We can not better conclude this brief sketch of him than with these few and simple but most noble and touching sentences : " O Lord God of hosts, great is thy mercy, just and holy are thy dealings unto we sinful men. Save me, O Lord, if it be thy good will, from the jaws of death. Pardon my manifold transgressions. O Lord, save my bleeding country : have these realms in thy especial keeping. Confound and level in the dust those who would rob the people of their liberty and lawful prerogative. Let the king see his error, and turn the hearts of his wicked counsellors from the malice and wickedness of their designs. Lord Jesu, receive my soul !"



OLIVER CROMWELL.

OLIVER CROMWELL, one of the most remarkable men England ever produced, and one whose character seems to baffle almost in the proportion in which it stimulates investigation, was born April 25, 1599, at Huntingdon, England, of highly respectable parents, and by his mother's side, it is said, he was remotely connected with the monarch over whose destinies he was to exercise so great an influence. He was considered an "obstinate" boy, and at both school and college submitted unwillingly to educational discipline.

In 1616, he became a member of Sidney college, Cambridge, whence he was removed, at the death of his father, shortly after, and entered at Lincoln's Inn for the study of the law. He now gave way to the dissipations which sur-

rounded him, and among his other evil propensities at that time was gambling. This life lasted two or three years: at the end of that time, finding that he had diminished his fortune, alienated his friends, and, above all, disgusted himself, he made a sudden and lasting reformation. He now married. The object of his choice was Elizabeth Bourchier, daughter of Sir James Bourchier, to whom he was united on the 22d of August, 1620, and the match appears to have been a happy one. His attachment to the puritans now began to show itself: some of the most unfortunate appear to have found an asylum in his house. A strong proof of the reality of his religious conviction, as well as of his high moral principle, is given in the circumstance of his returning several sums of money, in one instance as much as six hundred dollars, which he had formerly won by gambling, to the losers.

In 1628, his political career began by his election to parliament for the borough of Huntingdon, at the period when Charles I., by his arbitrary and tyrannical conduct, was raising up the storm which finally overwhelmed him. In 1635, Cromwell had a farm at St. Ives; but whether from the failure of the speculation, or from the extent of his hospitality, he now suffered from pecuniary embarrassments. He was relieved at the death of his uncle, Sir Thomas Stuart, by a bequest of property to the value of about twenty-five hundred dollars a year in the isle of Ely.

A remarkable incident now occurred. Disgusted with the aspect of affairs religious and political in England, and hopeless of any speedy change for the better, Cromwell resolved to come to America. He and Hampden (afterward one of the greatest of his coadjutors) were, it is said, actually embarked, when the vessel was detained, with seven others, bound also to this country, by an order of the king in council. This little circumstance would seem to stamp the depth of Cromwell's piety. The example and society of the Pilgrim Fathers could have little to attract so thorough a hypocrite as Cromwell's enemies have represented him to have been.

He now became an active local man of business, and gradually gathered round him a large body of friends and adherents, while with the people generally he became very popular. He first distinguished himself in personal opposition to his sovereign in the matter of draining the fens of the Bedford Level. The earl of Bedford and other gentlemen "adventurers" had obtained a power to drain that immense district, reserving to themselves ninety-five thousand acres as their reward for the accomplishment of the task. When the work was nearly completed, advantage was taken by Charles of some complaints against the "adventurers," by persons who thought themselves aggrieved, to direct his own officers to examine the drainage, with the intention of depriving the rightful owners of their property, if he could but manage to fix some blame upon them. That the nefarious character of the proceeding might not be mistaken, the king, in his instructions, prejudged the case, and the officers reported as he desired! Cromwell was roused at this proceeding, and acted with such vigor and address in the matter, that the whole county was filled with indignation at the king's conduct. The popular title of "Lord of the Fens" was long applied to Cromwell, and, as a mark of public approbation, he was elected member for Cambridge at the next parliament, in 1640.

A royalist contemporary, Sir Philip Warwick, thus describes Cromwell's appearance in the house of commons at this period: "I came one morning into the house well clad, and perceived a gentleman speaking, whom I knew not, very ordinarily apparelled; for it was a plain cloth suit, which seemed to have been made by an ill country tailor. His linen was plain, and not very clean; and I remember a spot or two of blood upon his little band, which was not much larger than his collar; his hat was without a hat-band. His stature was of a good size; his sword stuck close to his side; his countenance was

swollen and reddish ; his voice sharp and untunable ; and his eloquence full of fervor."

In 1641, the parliament remonstrated boldly with the king on his unconstitutional and oppressive acts, and Cromwell, with Pym, Hampden, and other democratic leaders, warmly supported it. When it became apparent to all parties that the sword alone could decide the differences between the king and the people, Cromwell raised a troop of horse in his own county, and, on the actual breaking out of the civil war, acted with such vigor and address as to repress all royalist movements in the neighboring counties, and keep them from the first devoted to the parliament.

Not the least extraordinary trait in Cromwell's character is his military genius. Without experience, or having had anything like a military education, commencing the study at a period of life when most other commanders have achieved their reputation, and although frequently placed in the most desperate situations, *he was never beaten*. At Marston Moor, Stamford, and Newbury, he successively overthrew the king's forces, and at last obtained so signal a reputation, that the parliament exempted him from its "self-denying ordinance," passed to prevent members of the house of commons from holding any command in the army. At the battle of Naseby, in 1645, Cromwell commanded the right wing, and was the chief agent in obtaining that signal victory. Thanks were voted to him in the following year, and a pension settled upon him to the amount of fifteen thousand dollars annually.

The great events which followed in rapid sequence are well known. The king in despair threw himself upon the Scottish army, which had entered England in pursuance of the "Solemn League and Covenant" made between the parliaments of the two countries. By the Scots he was delivered up to the parliamentary commissioners. Cromwell and his party, the independents, were now in great danger from the presbyterians, who commanded a majority in the house of commons, and who, flushed with the consciousness of their strength, endeavored, with that intolerance of spirit which was their great distinguishing characteristic as opposed to the independents, to crush all other sects, and in particular to disband that very army to which they owed all their successes, in order to form a new one more in accordance with their own tenets. The soldiery resisted, and thus was begun the struggle which in a measure compelled Cromwell to take many of those arbitrary steps for which his ambition has had the discredit. One Cornet Joyce, at the head of a party of horse, obtained possession for the army of the person of the king, and Cromwell that very day left London to avoid being seized by the presbyterians and sent to the Tower. He was received with shouts by the soldiery, and a solemn engagement was entered into "not to disband or divide without redress of grievances, security against oppression to the whole freeborn people of England, and the dismissal of the presbyterians from the government."

Negotiations were now commenced by all parties with the king, while at the same time the army marched toward London, meeting in their way a large minority of the parliament, consisting of course of independents, while many of the presbyterians fled on its approach. There seems no cause to doubt the sincerity of Cromwell in his endeavors to replace Charles on the throne, though on a more equitable foundation ; while the bad faith of the king is certain, and ultimately caused the treaty to be brought to a sudden conclusion. Charles now made his escape, but was again detained in the isle of Wight. The republicans of the army, who formed by far the most numerous part of it, seem to have been dissatisfied with Cromwell for not proceeding faster and more boldly in that course, which, when he did pursue it, brought down every kind of opprobrium on his name. They now gave him plainly to understand that he must join them or be sacrificed. He did join them, though not till he had com-



Portrait of Charles I.

pletely put down the more violent and ultra of the party, and from that time all thought of the restoration of the king appears to have been given up. The presbyterian majority was made a minority by the very simple though not very constitutional application of Colonel "Pride's purge," that officer being stationed at the door of the house of commons to arrest a great number of the principal presbyterians as they entered. It was the remainder of this parliament that determined upon the trial of the king, and caused their determination to be carried into effect, which resulted in his execution before Whitehall, January 30, 1649. During the sittings which took place in Westminster hall, Cromwell attended regularly every day. When the sentence was known, many applications were made to him to interfere and stay the execution. To Colonel Cromwell, his cousin, who thus applied, he said: "Go to rest, and expect no answer to carry to the prince, for the council of affairs have been seeking God, as I also have done, and it is resolved by them all that the king must die."

Cromwell was now employed in Ireland, which had rebelled, and he reduced it to submission in an almost incredibly short space of time, but not without the committal of cruelties upon the unhappy natives, at Drogheda and Wexford, a crime from which he was remarkably free in all his other campaigns. The next very important incident was the battle of Dunbar, in 1650, where he defeated the Scots, who had taken up the cause of Charles II., and were about to invade England. In this engagement Cromwell's military genius shone out most brilliantly. He defeated an army of twenty-seven thousand men with only twelve thousand, and that too under the greatest disadvantages of position. This battle furnishes two instances of his religious enthusiasm amounting almost to sublimity. The Scots were on the hills, Cromwell on the plain at their feet: the latter, seeing no hope of drawing them from their position, sent round, during the night preceding the battle, a detachment to the enemy's rear, to attack them in a weak point. While this manœuvre was in progress of execution, Cromwell beheld, at daybreak, most unexpectedly, the Scots descending to attack him. He at once cried out: "God is delivering them into our hands! They are coming down upon us!" Again, in the thick of the fight, he beheld the sun just beginning to appear, and immediately his voice was heard grandly pealing out, while his arm was seen directed toward the glorious luminary, "Now let our God arise, and his enemies shall be scattered!" Charles II. having in the interim marched into England, Cromwell hastily followed, overtook, and totally defeated him at Worcester. He now received additional honors and pensions.

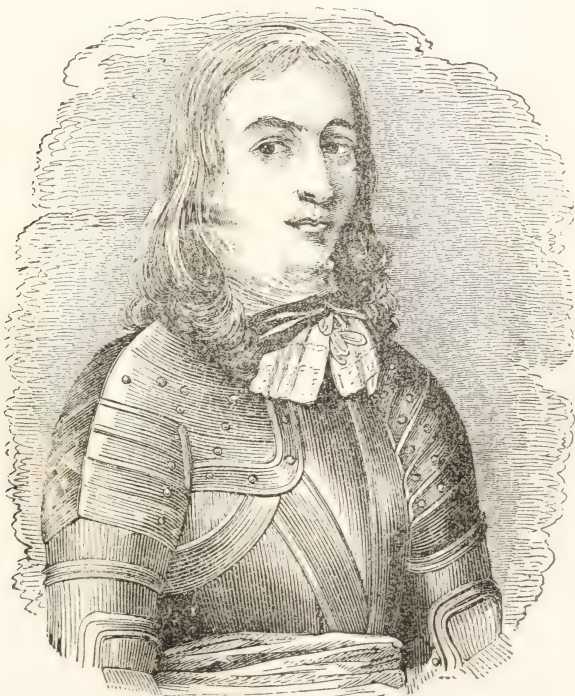
In 1653, the struggle between the independents and the presbyterians was again summarily decided in favor of the former, for the time, by the famous dissolution of the "Long Parliament." A new one was summoned, in the persons of a hundred and thirty-nine members, to whom Cromwell's writs were directly addressed, and who were upon the whole men of good family or of military distinction, though mixed with some inferior personages; among them one whose name (Barebone) was given to the parliament in derision. Cromwell was now declared protector. His enemies charge that he wished to have been king, but that a considerable portion of his most faithful adherents in the army were opposed to that desire. At all events, when he was formally invited to assume the crown, he declined. Like his unhappy predecessor, Cromwell dissolved parliament after parliament, but certainly not, like him, with the evident intention of creating a despotic authority.

From the time that Cromwell's influence directed the foreign relations of the country, it is astonishing to see the respect and fear which the very name of England inspired. The Dutch, with their famous admiral Van Tromp, were signally defeated, and stripped of their pretensions to the sovereignty of the seas; the New England colonists, who strongly sympathized with the republi-

cans in the mother-country, were promptly succored in view of a threatened invasion by the French; Jamaica, perhaps the most valuable of her colonies, was annexed to her dominions; the Spaniards were compelled to sue for peace after some severe defeats in the Low Countries; and everywhere English alliance and English friendship were courted, and not unfrequently in the most servile manner.

The last days of Cromwell appear to have been much embittered by the dread of assassination, which the chivalric royalists, as they delighted to consider themselves, did not hesitate openly to recommend. He wore armor under his dress; never stirred without his guards; he became morose and melancholy. The death of his favorite daughter, Lady Claypole, whom he loved with the deepest and tenderest affection, gave the finishing stroke to his unhappiness. It is by no means an improbable supposition that the days of the stern, ambitious protector of England were shortened by that romantic and not uncommonly disbelieved malady, a broken heart. He died September 3, 1658, the anniversary of his two battles of Dunbar and Worcester, in the sixtieth year of his age. He was buried with the greatest pomp and magnificence; but the miserable spite of Charles II. could not allow his remains to rest in peace: they were taken up at the restoration, hung upon the gallows at Tyburn, and then flung into a hole at its feet!

He was succeeded as lord-protector by his son Richard Cromwell, who was born in 1626. Finding himself unable to contend with the factions hostile to him, he resigned in the following year, and went to France on the restoration of Charles II. He returned to England in 1680, assumed the name of Clarke, and died in 1712.



Richard Cromwell.



ADMIRAL BLAKE.

ROBERT BLAKE, one of the most celebrated of British admirals, was born at Bridgewater, in 1599, and educated at Wadham college, Oxford. By the interest of the puritans, he was elected member for Bridgewater, in 1640. In the struggle between Charles I. and his people, he espoused the cause of liberty, and distinguished himself by his gallant defence of Taunton, and other exploits. In 1649, he was put in command of the fleet. His first achievement was the destruction of Prince Rupert's squadron, at Malaga. In 1652 and 1653, he fought four desperate engagements with the Dutch fleet, under Van Tromp, in two of which the enemy were defeated with great loss. The next theatre of Blake's glory was the Mediterranean, to which he sailed in 1654, and where he destroyed the Tunisian castles of Goletta and Porto Ferino, and intercepted the Spanish plate fleet. Having received intelligence that another plate fleet was lying at Santa Cruz, in Teneriffe, he sailed thither, forced his way into the harbor, burned the ships, and came out without having suffered any loss. His health was now entirely broken, and he bent his course homeward, but expired August 27, 1657, while the fleet was entering Plymouth sound.

A model in all things of a true sailor, Blake had been during his life as prodigal of his money among his comrades, as of his personal exertions in the service of his country; and notwithstanding the ample opportunities he had had of enriching himself, it was found that he had not increased his paternal fortune by so much as five hundred pounds. A magnificent public funeral, and the interment of his body in Henry VII.'s chapel, in Westminster abbey, testified the grief of England for the loss of her greatest defender; but among the mean outrages which disgraced the triumph of the Restoration, it was one of the very meanest, that Blake's mouldering remains were removed from the honorable resting-place thus assigned to them, and deposited in the neighboring churchyard of St. Margaret.



John Winthrop

FIRST GOVERNOR OF CONNECTICUT.

THIS distinguished gentleman, for many years the governor of Connecticut was the eldest son of John Winthrop, the first governor of Massachusetts, a biographical sketch of whom appears a few pages back. The son, the subject of this brief memoir, who was scarcely less distinguished than the father, was born in England in 1605. He received his education at the university of Cambridge, and was one of the first scholars of his time. The liberal opportunities he enjoyed for improving his mind, were used to the best advantage. After leaving the university, he travelled on the continent of Europe, and became acquainted with some of the first men of the age. He was much addicted to philosophical study, and especially to physical science. He was one of the early patrons of the London Royal Society. Sir Hans Sloane, and three other members of that society, some fifty years afterward, in commending the grandson of this gentleman to the notice of their associates, bear honorable testimony to the good repute in which the ancestor was held. They speak of the learned John Winthrop, as "one of the first members of this society, and who in conjunction with others, did greatly contribute to the obtaining of our charter; to whom the Royal Society in its early days was not only indebted for various ingenious communications, but their museum still contains many testimonies

of his generosity, especially of things relating to the natural history of New England."

Mr. Winthrop came to Boston in 1635, with authority to take the settlement in Connecticut; and, shortly after his arrival, he despatched a number of persons to build a fort at Saybrook. He was chosen governor in 1657, and again in 1659, and from that period he was annually re-elected till his death. In 1662, he went to England, and procured a charter, incorporating Connecticut and New Haven into one colony. He died while on a visit to Boston, April 5, 1676, in the seventy-first year of his age.

Governor Winthrop was twice married, his second wife being the daughter of the celebrated Hugh Peters. By this marriage he had several children, two of whom were sons. The elder Fitz-John, followed in the footsteps of his father—was elected governor of Connecticut, and held that post for nine years, commencing in 1698, and continuing till the day of his death. Thus father, son, and grandson, died in the highest office to which the affections of the people could exalt them.

MATTHEW HALE.

SIR MATTHEW HALE, an eminent English judge, was born at Alderley, in Gloucestershire, in 1609. He received his early education under a puritanical clergyman, and afterward became a student at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, whence he removed, in his twenty-first year, to Lincoln's Inn. He is said to have studied sixteen hours daily, extending his researches to natural philosophy, mathematics, history, and divinity, as well as the sciences more immediately connected with his profession. He was called to the bar previously to the commencement of the civil war; and, in the conflict of parties which took place, his moderation, accompanied, as it was, by personal integrity, and skill in his profession, secured him the esteem of both royalists and parliamentarians in his own time. Imitating Atticus rather than Cato, he adhered to the triumphant party, and scrupled not to take the covenant, and become a lay-member of the famous ecclesiastical assembly at Westminster; yet he acted as counsel for the accused on the trials of the earl of Strafford, Archbishop Laud, and even of the king himself. In 1652, he was placed on the committee appointed to consider of the propriety of reforming the law. In 1654, he became a judge of the common bench (the former king's bench), in which station he displayed firmness of principle sufficient to give offence to the protector; and, finding he could not retain his office with honor, he refused to preside again on criminal trials. After the death of Oliver Cromwell, he refused a new commission from his son and successor. He was a member of the parliament which restored Charles II. and he was one of the members most active in passing the act of indemnity. In November, 1660, he was knighted, and made chief baron of the court of exchequer. He presided at the condemnation of some persons arraigned for witchcraft, at Bury St. Edmund's, in 1664, and was the last English judge who sanctioned the conviction of culprits for that imaginary crime. He was raised to the chief-justiceship of the king's bench in 1671, where he sat till 1676, toward the end of which year he died. After his death appeared his "History of the Pleas of the Crown," "The Jurisdiction of the Lords' House," and "The History of the Common Law of England;" of which there have been repeated editions, with comments. His valuable collection of manuscripts relating to history and jurisprudence, is preserved in the library of Lincoln's Inn. Sir Matthew Hale also wrote several works on scientific and religious subjects.

REMBRANDT VAN RHYN.

REMBRANDT VAN RHYN, a celebrated historical and portrait painter, and also an excellent engraver, was born at a village near Leyden, South Holland, in 1606, and died in 1674, aged sixty-eight. His real name was Gerret; but he is known by the name of Van Rhyn, an appellation given him from the place where he spent the youthful part of his life, which was on the borders of the Rhine. As he gave very early tokens of a strong genius for painting, he was at first placed under the care of Jacob Van Zwanenburg, in whose school he continued for three years; and in that time afforded such evident proofs of uncommon and superior talents, as extremely surprised his instructor. Afterward, he was the disciple of Peter Lastman, but stayed no longer than six months with that master, and for the same length of time he studied under Jacob Pinas; from whose manner, it is said, Rembrandt acquired that taste for strong oppositions of light and shadow which he ever after so happily cultivated. He formed his own manner entirely, by studying and imitating nature, which he copied in its most simple dress, without any apparent attention to elegance of choice. But although it was not his talent to select what was most beautiful or graceful in nature, yet he had an amazing power in representing every object that was before his eyes with such truth, force, and life, as nothing but nature itself can equal. By the advice of an artist who was his friend, Rembrandt was prevailed on to carry one of his first performances to the Hague; and he there offered it to an able connoisseur, who treated him with great kindness and respect, and presented him with a hundred florins for the picture. This incident, though not seeming to be of any great consequence, yet laid the foundation of Rembrandt's fortune; for it not only served to make the public acquainted with his abilities, but it also contributed to make him more sensible of his merit; and as he soon after was solicited for his works by many persons of distinction, he settled at Amsterdam, where he might follow his profession with more ease and advantage.

Incessant business crowded on Rembrandt immediately, so as scarcely to allow him time to gratify the general demand for his paintings; and he had such a number of pupils, that wealth flowed in upon him plentifully from many sources. For, as most of his disciples were the sons of people of condition or fortune, he received from each of them a hundred florins a year for their instruction; and had sagacity enough to raise a considerable sum by the sale of those copies which they made after his pictures and designs: for he always retouched them in several parts with his own free pencil, to increase their value, by inducing purchasers to believe them to be really his own. And we are assured by Sandrart, that by such kind of traffic, and an artful management of the sale of his etchings, he gained every year at the least two thousand five hundred florins. His style of painting, in the first years of his practice was very different from that of his latter time; for his early performances were finished highly and with a neat pencil, resembling those of Mieris; but he afterward assumed a style of coloring and handling as opposite to it as possible, strong, bold, and with a degree of force that astonishes; in which he has been unexcelled by any artist, though Eckhout, and some of his best disciples have approached very near him. In his first manner are, the historical picture of Ahasuerus, Esther, and Haman; the Woman taken in Adultery; and St. John preaching in the Wilderness; which are mentioned as being exquisitely finished, and yet touched with inexpressible fire and spirit. Houbraken seems to ascribe more real merit to his former than his latter works, although at that time he painted with amazing expedition. The invention of Rembrandt was very fer-



Portrait of Rembrandt Van Rhyen.

tile, and his imagination lively and active ; but his composition, notwithstanding it was remarkable for strength of expression, was destitute of grandeur ; and although his genius was full of fire, yet he wanted elevation of thought, and had little or no notion of grace or elegance.

It has been said, that if Rembrandt had visited Rome, his taste would have been proportionally refined ; and that the knowledge of the antique, added to his other eminent qualifications might have produced a master equal to the most exalted character. But that this would certainly have been the effect of his visiting Italy may justly be doubted, when the prevalence of habit is considered ; when his mind was stored with ideas taken from gross and heavy nature, to which he had been familiarized from his infancy ; and if it be also particularly considered that he took pains to furnish himself with a collection of the finest Italian prints, drawings, and designs, many of them taken from the antiques, which he seems to have studied with pleasure, but without the smallest improvement of his taste. It appears as if he had more solid delight in contemplating his own repository of old draperies, armor, weapons, and turbans, which he jocularly called his antiques, than he ever felt from surveying the works of the Grecian artists, or the compositions of Raphael. As to his coloring, it was surprising ; his carnations are as true, as fresh, and as perfect, in the subjects he painted, as they appear in the works of Titian, or any other master, with this only difference, that the coloring of Titian will admit of the nearest inspection, whereas that of Rembrandt must be viewed at a convenient distance ; and then an equal degree of union, force, and harmony, may be observed in both. His portraits are confessedly excellent ; but by his being accustomed to imitate nature exactly, and the nature he imitated being always of the heavy kind, his portraits, though admirable in respect to the likeness, and the look of life, want grace and dignity in the airs and attitudes. In regard to other particulars, he was so exact in giving the true resemblance of the persons that sat to him, that he distinguished the predominant feature and character in every face, without endeavoring to improve or embellish it. And in many of his heads may be seen such a minute exactness, that he represented even the hairs of the beard, and the wrinkles of old age ; yet, at a proper distance, the whole has an effect that astonishes ; for he imitated his model in so true, so plain, and so faithful a manner, that every portrait appears animated, and as if starting from the canvass. His local colors are extremely good ; he perfectly understood the principles of the *chiaro-scuro* ; and it is reported that he generally painted in a chamber so contrived as to admit but one ray of light, and that from above. The lights in his pictures were painted with a body of color usually thick, as if the artist had an intention rather to model than to paint ; but he knew the nature and property of each particular color so thoroughly, that he placed every tint in its proper place, and by that means avoided the necessity of breaking and torturing his colors, and preserved them in their full freshness, beauty, and lustre. One of his greatest defects appeared in his designing nudity ; for in such figures he was excessively incorrect ; the bodies were either too gross or too lean, the extremities too small or too great, and the whole figure generally out of proportion. But in other parts of his art, such as coloring, expression, and the force produced by light and shadows happily and harmoniously opposed, he had few equal to him, and none superior.

The etchings of Rembrandt are exceedingly admired, and collected with great care and expense for the cabinets of the curious, in most parts of Europe ; and it is remarked, that none of his prints are dated earlier than 1628, nor later than 1659, though there are several of his paintings dated in 1660. He had the same spirit in every stroke of the graver as in the markings of his pencil ; there seems not to be a single touch that does not produce expression and life.

PETER STUYVESANT.

UPON the pages of the colonial history of the state of New York, no name appears more conspicuous as a wise and efficient magistrate, than that of PETER STUYVESANT. He was a man possessed of strong intellectual powers, refined by education, and an amenity of manners connected with firmness and decision of character which eminently fitted him to be an actor in the exciting scenes which characterized the colonies at the commencement of his administration. When he assumed the reins of government, the colony of the New Netherlands had enemies to contend with on all sides; the Swedes on the south, the English on the east, and the aborigines on the north and west.

It may be well to remind the reader, that New York was first discovered by Henry Hudson, in 1609, as detailed in the sketch of that bold navigator on page 166. A few years after, a few trading and fishing huts were erected on the lower extremity of the island. For twenty years from this period, we know but little of the progress of the settlement, and it may be legitimately considered the "dark age" of its history. In 1629, Governor Wouter Van Twiller arrived and took the command of New Amsterdam. His administration continued nine years, and has been humorously illustrated by Mr. Irving. After him succeeded William Kieft, who also administered nine years, viz., till 1647, and was then succeeded by Peter Stuyvesant, who was born in Holland in 1602.

Upon assuming the reins of government, Stuyvesant concluded treaties of peace and trade with the Indian tribes, and after much negotiation, made an amicable settlement of the boundary question with the New England or Connecticut colony. But the efforts of the respective colonies to engross each for themselves the Indian trade, kept up a constant jealousy, and an unfounded report gained credence among the eastern colonies, that the Dutch governor had incited the Indians to massacre the English. Of this charge Stuyvesant gave an indignant denial; but the New England colonies were not satisfied, and they determined to commence a war against the Dutch. They applied to Cromwell who was then lord-protector of England, for aid. Cromwell was then at war with Holland, and he at once complied with their request. An English squadron for the purpose arrived at Boston, in 1654; but peace soon after being concluded between the protector and the states-general, the orders were countermanded, and the squadron returned to England.

Although the states-general and the West India Company had openly denied the pretensions of Lord Baltimore, yet they gave Stuyvesant instructions to retire beyond Baltimore's claimed boundary, in case of hostilities. Stuyvesant was much chagrined at this exhibition of the weakness of his superiors, and he solicited that a formal copy of the grant made by the states-general to the company, might be transmitted to him, that by it, he might efficiently assert the interests he was bound to defend. But they were too afraid of English power, to grant this request; and Stuyvesant willing to propitiate the English by honorable means, sent a commission to Sir William Berkley, governor of Virginia, proposing a commercial treaty. This treaty was formed, but Berkley carefully avoided the recognition of the territorial pretensions of the Dutch, which Stuyvesant hoped to obtain.

When Charles II. was restored after the downfall of Cromwell, the colonists of New Netherlands hoped for a different policy to be exercised toward them by the crown; and Stuyvesant seized every opportunity to propitiate the English court. When the pursuers of Goffe and Whalley, the judges who condemned Charles I., requested Stuyvesant not to offer them protection, he readily acquiesced, and agreed to prohibit all vessels from transporting them beyond



Portrait of Peter Stuyvesant.

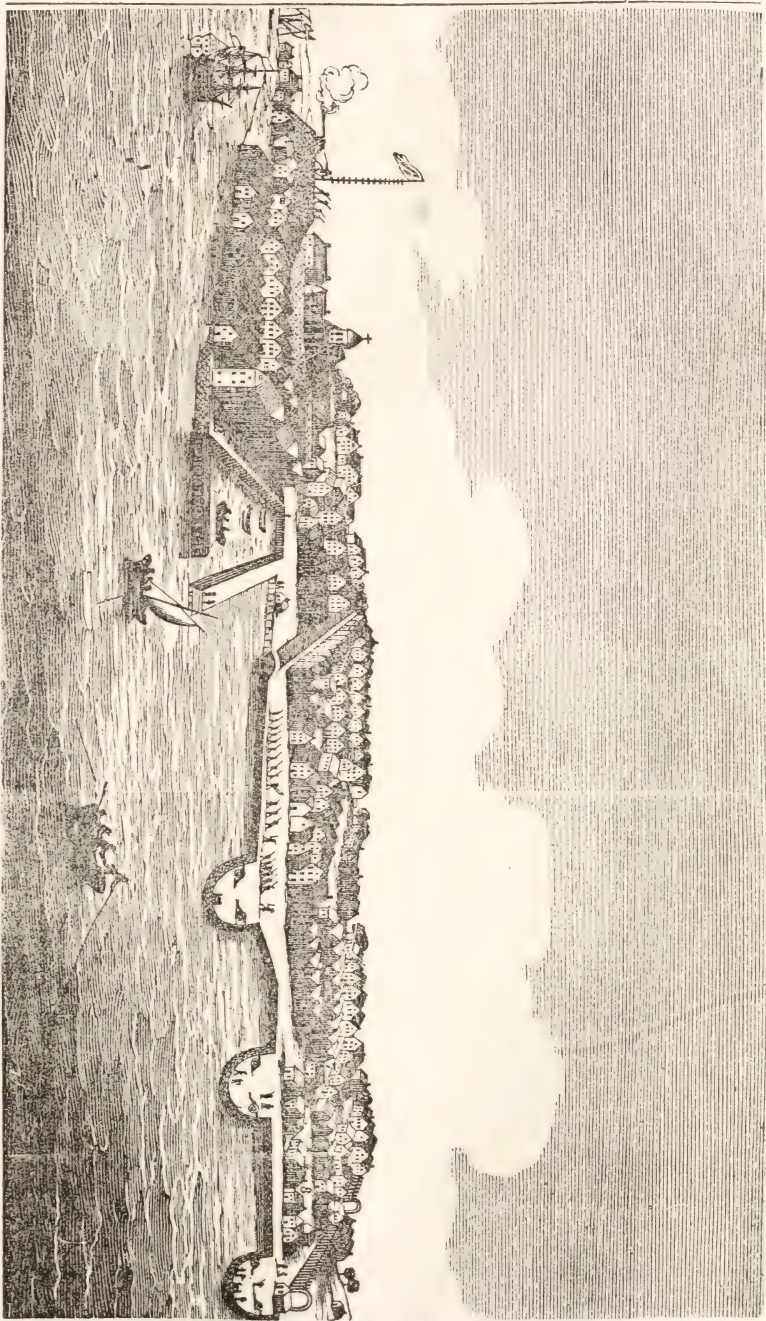
the reach of pursuers. But this policy had no effect, for Charles, from the moment of his restoration, determined to bring the Dutch colony in America, under subjection to the British crown. Added to this determination, Charles viewed the New England colonists, the puritans, with hatred, for they seemed to him a remnant of that faction, who had executed his unhappy predecessor, and driven himself into exile; and he determined to teach them, also, that they were not beyond his reach, even in the new world. Stuyvesant saw the storm that was gathering, and made an unsuccessful attempt to engage the New England colonies in an alliance with the Dutch, against a common enemy. While he was personally engaged in this business, an English fleet approached the coast of the New Netherlands, and the governor was obliged to return in haste to the defence of his province.

As an excuse for commencing hostilities, Charles had endeavored, but unsuccessfully, to provoke the states-general. His only excuse left was, that the English *first* discovered and landed upon various parts of the American shore, and laid claim by this priority, to exclusive jurisdiction over the whole. In pursuit of his purpose, he gave to his brother, the duke of York, a grant dated 1664, entitling him to the whole region from the Delaware to the Connecticut river, without any regard to the Dutch settlements, or the previous charter granted to the Connecticut colony. Upon this unjust ground, did the English monarch found his excuse for commencing hostilities against the New Netherlands.

As soon as Stuyvesant heard of the preparations for conquest making by England, he communicated the alarming intelligence to the states-general; but the only aid they sent him, was the original grant, which they had before denied him. But this was entirely inefficient in combating an expedition so unwarrantable in all its arrangements and purposes. The command of the fleet and the government of the province, were given to Colonel Nichols. The fleet touched at Boston, where an armed force had been ordered to join it, and immediately proceeded to New Amsterdam. Governor Winthrop of Connecticut and others, joined the king's standard, and the armament that appeared in New York (then New Amsterdam) bay, consisted of three ships, one hundred and thirty guns, and six hundred men. Governor Stuyvesant was anxious to offer resistance, notwithstanding the force was superior to his own; but the peaceful inhabitants regarding the terms of capitulation as exceedingly favorable, were disposed to surrender at once. For some time Stuyvesant kept up a negotiation, but to no purpose; and at last an honorable surrender was made. The capitulation was signed by the commissioners on the 27th of August, 1664, but the governor could not be brought to ratify it by his signature, until nearly two days afterward. Fort Orange surrendered to Colonel Cartright on the 24th of September, who confirmed the title of Jeremiah Van Rensselaer, to the manor of Rensselaerwicke. The name of Fort Orange was changed to Albany, and that of New Amsterdam to New York, in honor of the proprietor.

Governor Stuyvesant made a voyage to Holland, and on his return, retired to his estate in the Bowery, in the city of New York, where he spent the remainder of his life. At his death, in August 1682, he was interred in a chapel erected upon his own land. He left behind him an untarnished reputation, and his descendants now enjoy the same honorable name and vast possessions, bequeathed by this illustrious ancestor.

The engraving opposite, shows New York in the time of Stuyvesant. The picket fence which formed its northern limit, and which may be seen at the right hand, was located at the part of the city now known as Wall street.



View of New York in the time of Stuyvesant.—From a Picture of that date.

The left of the engraving is the point of land now occupied by the Battery; the building beneath the flag-staff is Fort Amsterdam; in the centre is shown the canal which run through Broad street; the fence at the right is a palisade, extending from East to North river, with gates at intervals, along the present line of Wall street; this was the extent of the city.



PIERRE CORNEILLE.

Among the brilliant lights of French literature that shone conspicuously during the sixteenth century, the name of PIERRE CORNEILLE appears the most prominent, and may be considered in his relations to Gallic literature and the creation of a refined taste among the higher orders of the French people, in the same light as we regard Shakspeare in his relation to, and influence upon, the literary taste of the English. Although his genius and talents were sufficiently vigorous and versatile to warrant the belief that he might have become eminent in every department of the republic of letters, yet his taste was decidedly dramatic, and upon his compositions of this character, his fame as a poet and a scholar chiefly rests.

Prior to the splendid reign of Louis XIV., the literature (particularly dramatic literature) of France was at a low ebb, and the stage, from which the people in a great measure derived many of their literary tastes and social peculiarities, presented a singular medley of classic purity and grave and modern buffoonery and vulgarity. No one either in tragedy or comedy had dared to depart from the Grecian model, in either the plot of the written drama, or the *modus operandi* of stage effect, and hence dramatic literature had scarcely a national feature to recommend it to a modern people as a picture of life, which should be the legitimate aim of the drama. Louis was a munificent patron of learning, and to him the French stage was much indebted for great improvements. It received decoration and splendor at his hands, but it was not these alone for which it was indebted to him. His munificence brought the best talents of France to its aid, and among the men of great genius that offered their services were Corneille and Racine, the Homer and Virgil of the French drama. Although they were in a great measure trammelled by existing customs, and withheld from using the infinite amount of material, out of which they were capable of building up a noble superstructure of national literature, yet they

broke down numerous barriers and reared for themselves a monument of distinction, as the proudest boast of the classical age of France, and a high honor to the European republic of letters.

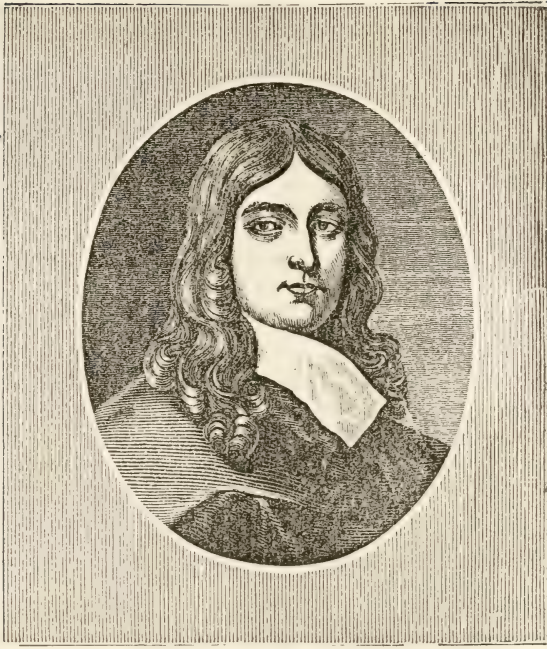
The taste of Corneille approximated more nearly to the romantic in his dramatic compositions, than Racine. In his *Cid* this taste is very apparent, as well as a peculiar faculty for painting to the life the character of the tyrant, the miser, the hero, the sage, or any other character of strongly-marked features. In the character of Don Gourmas, in his *Cid*, so faithfully did he portray the Spanish nobility with all their vices and their few virtues, that he received the censure of the academy, the then arbiter of French literature. It can not be denied that tyrants and conquerors never sat to a painter of greater skill than he, in the true delineation of their character.

Corneille was the first to introduce upon the French stage that peculiar feature of the modern drama, which gives it so much value, the unity of words, sentiment, costume, and action. He first taught *mimic* Romans to dress, talk, and act, like *real* Romans, and dismissed for ever those Cæsars, Ciceros, and Glauceuses, who came upon the stage appearing in dress, articulation, and action, like the generals, orators, and courtiers, that hovered around the court at Versailles. Before his time, Greeks, Romans, and Scythians, all appeared upon the stage in the full dress of the French court; and Augustus Cæsar—he whom Romans venerated while living and apotheosized when dead—appeared in a full-bottomed wig with a crown of laurels over it. The reformation so nobly begun by Corneille, was fully consummated by Voltaire about a century after.

Corneille was born at Rouen, France, in 1608, and died in 1684. His works have been frequently reprinted, and consist of about thirty tragedies and comedies, beside many fugitive sketches in prose and verse.

JOHN MILTON.

JOHN MILTON, the most illustrious of English poets, was the son of a scrivener in London, and born in Bread street, in 1608. From St. Paul's school he went to Christ's college, Cambridge, where he took his degrees in arts, being designed for the church; but not having an inclination to that calling, he returned to his father, who had retired from business with a good fortune, and settled at Horton, in Buckinghamshire. Here our poet wrote his "Comus," "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," and "Lycidas," poems of such merit as would have alone immortalized his name. In 1638 he travelled into France and Italy, and on his return to England settled in London. The troubles breaking out between the king and parliament, Milton engaged as a political writer on the popular side; and having a great animosity to the hierarchy, he published some severe pamphlets against the bishops. In 1643 he married the daughter of Richard Powell, Esq., a magistrate in Oxfordshire. The father of the lady being a jovial country gentleman and a royalist, the residence of her husband so offended the bride, that in less than a month, under the pretence of a visit, she left him, and remained for the rest of the summer with her parents. Milton became incensed, and regarding her conduct as a desertion of the marriage contract, he sought to punish it by repudiation; and to this is to be attributed his treatises on the subject of "Divorce." His wife's friends, however, brought about a reconciliation. He continued an ardent champion for the republican party, even after the execution of Charles I., which he vindicated in his "Tenure of Kings and Magistrates;" but he has been charged with not being disin-



John Milton.

terested in this, as the parliament gave him one thousand pounds and soon afterward nominated him Latin secretary to the new council of state. He also wrote with great severity against the king's book of prayers and meditations, entitled "Icon Basilike." The treatise of Milton was called "Iconoclastes, or the Image-Breaker;" in which he censured the king for having made use of a prayer taken from "Sidney's Arcadia." He was next employed to answer the treatise of Salmasius, entitled "Defensio Regia, or a Defence of the late King." The reply of Milton had for its title "Defensio pro Populo Anglicano;" and it was observed by Hobbes, in regard to the two disputants, that he did not know whose style was best, or whose arguments were worst. About this time he was deprived of his sight, owing to a natural weakness, and intense application to his studies. In 1652 he lost his wife, and married again in 1654.

Milton was a determined republican, and wrote with an energy which proved his sincerity against monarchical government, "the very trappings of which," he said "would support a commonwealth." True to his principles he did not cease, even after the death of Cromwell, and in the midst of the almost universal trepidation which had seized upon his party, still to employ his pen in calling upon his countrymen to rally around what he deemed the cause of liberty. But his efforts were vain. On the Restoration, he was excluded from the act of indemnity, and obliged to keep himself concealed for some time. By the intercession, however, of Sir William Davenant and others, he was restored to favor; soon after which, in 1657, he lost his second wife. In 1661, he married a third time. In the time of the plague he removed to Chalfont, in Buckinghamshire, where he completed his "Paradise Lost," which was printed first in 1667. For this immortal work he had only fifteen pounds, and that by instalments. For the idea of it he is said to have been indebted to an Italian drama on the Fall of Man; and it is certain that he had himself an intention at first of writing only a tragedy on the same subject. As the work grew under his hand,

his soaring genius gave it the form and consistence, the variety and elegance, of an epic poem. After this he engaged in another, called "Paradise Regained;" the occasion of which was as follows: John Elwood, the quaker, who was his amanuensis, calling upon him at Chalfont, and the conversation turning upon Milton's great work, Elwood observed, "Thou hast said much upon *Paradise Lost*, but what hast thou to say upon *Paradise Found*!" Milton paused, and the next time they met, he showed Elwood the latter poem, saying, "This is owing to you." The "*Paradise Regained*," though possessing many beauties, is in all respects inferior to the "*Paradise Lost*;" yet it is remarkable that the author gave it the preference. Milton died at his house in Bunhill Row, in 1674, and lies interred in the parish church of St. Giles, Cripplegate, where there is a monument to his memory, and another in Westminster Abbey, erected by William Benson. Besides the poems mentioned above, Milton wrote a drama on the Greek model, entitled "*Samson Agonistes*," which possesses uncommon beauties, though not adapted to theatrical representation. He also wrote a "*History of England to the Conquest*," and several tracts. In his youth, Milton was distinguished for personal beauty; his habits of life were those of a student and philosopher, being strictly sober and temperate; and his chief relaxation consisted of music and conversation. Though warm in controversy, he is said to have been of a serene and cheerful temper, and particularly urbane in his intercourse with society. But whatever may be thought of his domestic virtues, there can be but one opinion with regard to the sublimity of his genius, and the extent of his erudition.

MARSHAL TURENNE.

HENRI DE LA TOUR D'AUVERGNE, VISCOUNT TURENNE, one of the most renowned generals of modern times, was the second son of the duke de Bouillon, prince of Sedan, in Champagne, France, where he was born, September 16, 1611. His mother was Elizabeth of Nassau, daughter of William, prince of Orange, commonly called William I., the illustrious founder of the Dutch republic. His father having died, Turenne was sent by his mother, at the early age of thirteen, to the Netherlands, to be trained to the art of war under his uncle, Prince Maurice, who, since the assassination of William in 1584, had presided over the affairs of that country. The young recruit was placed at first in the ranks, and served as a common soldier, taking his share in all the labors and hardships of his comrades, before he was raised to the post of command. In 1630 he returned to France, and was immediately invested with the command of a regiment. In 1634, having made a brilliant display of his skill and courage at the siege of the fortress of La Motte, in Lorraine, he was raised to the rank of *marechal-de-camp*. The next year he was sent to Germany to take part in the war against the emperor. From this date till his death, he was almost constantly engaged in active service; and for the next forty years no military name in France or Europe, was more renowned than that of Turenne, but we can not here follow him through his successive campaigns. He was made a marshal of France in 1642, at the early age of twenty-seven, and marshal-general of the French armies on the marriage of Louis IV. in 1660. The chief scenes of his exploits were Holland and Flanders, Italy, and different parts of Germany. He also took a leading part in the civil dissensions which distracted his native country during the minority of Louis XIV., espousing in the first instance the cause of the Fronde, or combination of malcontented nobility, but afterward taking the side of the court, and fighting as valiantly against



Marshal Turenne.

his late associates. The career of Turenne was closed by one of the accidents of war which may befall the highest or the humblest soldier. As he was reconnoitring the position of the Austrian general, Montecuculi, near Saltzbach, he was struck by a cannon-ball, and fell dead from his horse, on the 27th of July, 1675. Turenne had married in 1653 the daughter of the duke de la Force, who died however, in 1666, without leaving children. This lady was a person of great piety, and strongly attached to the protestant faith, of which her ancestors had been among the first and most strenuous defenders. While she lived, Turenne, a protestant also by education and by descent, both on his father's and mother's side, resisted all the solicitations of the court to change his religion. Not long after the death of his wife, however, after professing to have studied the points in dispute between the two churches, he publicly declared himself a catholic. In sagacity, steady perseverance, self-reliance, and many of the other qualities which go to form an able commander of an army, Marshal Turenne has scarcely been surpassed; and he was also brave as his sword, and so wholly devoted in heart to his profession, that he thought as little of its toils as of its dangers, and was at all times ready to share both with the meanest in the camp. Hence he was the idol of his men as well as their pride; they not only admired, and followed with alacrity to the field, the consummate captain and hero of a hundred victories, but they loved the man. This military spirit was the soul of Turenne's character and the source of both its bright and its darker points. Indeed, bred as he was to the trade of arms almost from his childhood, and living in an age of such incessant warfare, it was hardly possible that he should have been anything more or less than a soldier; and it would be unjust to pronounce upon the character of an individual, who certainly possessed many high qualities, by subjecting him to the standard by which we have learned to estimate the pretensions of mere warriors.

THE EMPEROR AURENGZEBE.

AURENGZEBE, one of the most celebrated of the Mogul emperors in India, was born in 1624. He was the youngest son of Shah Jehan, the previous emperor, whom he succeeded in 1658, by a daring usurpation of the throne.

In the year named above, Shah Jehan was seized with so serious an illness, that his recovery was deemed hopeless; and his four sons, who were all aspirants to the imperial throne, began to devise the best means for realizing their respective pretensions. Aurengzebe, the youngest of the four brothers, was a man of remarkably mild temper, but cautious, designing, and a perfect master of the art of dissimulation. Dara Sheko, the eldest, was, on the contrary, open-hearted, impetuous, and rash, even to folly. The other two princes, Sujah and Morad, of whom the former was viceroy of Bengal, the latter of Guzerat, were bold, ambitious leaders, but were not equal to Dara Sheko in spirit, or to Aurengzebe in policy. Each of the four raised an army, and they went to war with each other, while their father was yet alive. The crafty Aurengzebe pretended, at first, to resign in favor of his brother Morad, who thus was induced to join his forces to those of the dissembler, and the two together defeated Dara and Sujah in succession; but while Morad was rejoicing over his fancied success, he was made prisoner by a contrivance of Aurengzebe, who invited him to a supper, and made him drink wine till he was quite insensible, when he was carried off to the citadel, and put in chains. He was afterward removed to Fort Gwalior, where he died.

The imprisonment of Morad was not the worst of the many crimes by which Aurengzebe raised himself to the throne of the Mogul empire. Taking advantage of his father's advanced age, and the weak state to which his late illness had reduced him, he compelled the unhappy monarch to sign his own abdication; and although a palace was assigned for his residence, and he was treated with the utmost respect during the few remaining years of his life, and solaced by the affectionate attentions of a favorite daughter, still he was, in reality, his son's prisoner, and obliged to submit where he alone had the right to command.

Thus, all obstacles removed, Aurengzebe secured to himself the throne of India, heedless of the execrations of the people over whom he was to reign. From this period, however, his character appears under brighter colors. He began to pay the utmost attention and respect to his unfortunate parent, consistent with his captivity; he used all his efforts to moderate his anguish and resentment. On one occasion, wishing to adorn the throne with some of the imperial jewels possessed by Shah Jehan, he made a request to that end. The reply was, that hammers were ready to pound the jewels into dust if there were any more importunity on the subject; which merely produced the remark from the emperor, "Let him keep his jewels; nay, let him command those of Aurengzebe." This so affected Jehan, that he immediately sent a number of the gems he had before refused, accompanied with this message: "Take these, which I am destined to wear no more; wear them with dignity, and by your own renown make some amends to your family for their misfortunes." When this was repeated to the emperor he burst into tears. Shah Jehan survived the loss of empire seven or eight years, and then died in the unnatural captivity to which he had been doomed.

The principal events of Aurengzebe's reign may be thus shortly noticed: The interminable war in the Deccan was continued at first with success, but more doubtfully after the appearance of Sevajee, the founder of the Mahratta kingdom, upon the scene. The emir Jumla marched into the country of Assam, with the intention of penetrating into the very heart of China, but the army was



Portrait of Aurengzebe.—From a Miniature painted in India.

attacked by disease, and the emir himself fell a prey to it. A ludicrous though far from unimportant event, was the appearance of an old woman in arms against the emperor, at the head of some twenty thousand fakirs, or religious mendicants. Many of these had been first drawn around her by her liberality, and, thus congregated, committed various outrages on the neighboring inhabitants, who at last rose against them, but were defeated with great slaughter. Rising from one success to another, the idea of enchantment, which had been instilled by the female chief, and enthusiastically acted upon by her followers, was at last believed by the people, who were everywhere in the greatest dread of her power. The sainted army now determined to advance to the very capital, and strike boldly for the empire. A single imprudent step, such as an unreasoning contempt for this novel force would have assuredly instigated, might have covered Aurengzebe with disgrace, perhaps have really cost him his throne, for his soldiers were evidently alarmed at the rumors which reached them. With admirable tact the emperor attacked the holy chief in her own way: he was himself as famous for sanctity as the lady; this gave him the opportunity of pretending that, by means of incantation, he had discovered a counter-charm, which he wrote with his own hands upon little slips of paper that were to be fastened on the tops of spears, and borne before the several divisions of the army. The emperor was believed, and the fakirs cut to pieces. The rebellion of his son Akber, in the latter part of his reign, caused him much anguish, which was heightened by the reflection that he had himself set the example by his conduct to Shah Jehan.

The death of the emperor took place in 1707. He died in his camp at Ahmednagar, at the advanced age of eighty-nine, in the fiftieth year of his reign. Aurengzebe was remarkable for the simplicity of his habits and manners, which he constantly maintained amid the splendor of the most magnificent court in the world. An English envoy, sent on a mission to Delhi, about ten years before the emperor's death, on being introduced into the imperial presence, was surprised to see a little old man, with a long silvery beard, dressed in plain white muslin, standing in the midst of a group of omrahs, whose rich robes, sparkling with jewels, formed a striking contrast to the unostentatious appearance of their sovereign.

Aurengzebe's latter hours were much embittered with remorse, and, we may hope, elevated by penitence. In his letters to his son, written under the prospect of death, he says: "Old age has arrived; weakness subdues me, and strength has forsaken all my limbs. I came a stranger into this world, and a stranger I depart. I know nothing of myself, what I am, or for what I am destined. The instant which passed in power hath left only sorrow behind it. I have not been the guardian and protector of the empire. My valuable time has been passed vainly. *I had a patron in my own dwelling [conscience], but his glorious light was not seen by my dim vision.*" Of Aurengzebe's administration of the domestic affairs of the empire, it is impossible to speak too highly; it was liberal, enlightened, and just. One fact alone speaks volumes in its favor; a great famine desolated India in the third year of his reign, and produced the most appalling sufferings among the people. The emperor immediately remitted the rents of the land and other taxes; he bought corn where it was most plentiful, and sold it at reduced prices where it was the least so, furnishing the means for so doing from his own treasury, which had grown rich under his economical and able management, and which he opened for the benefit of the people without limit. It is indeed a most extraordinary, but at the same time a consoling and gratifying fact, that men like Shah Jehan and Aurengzebe, stained with execrable crimes committed in the pursuit of power, should, when their objects were obtained, be so justly famous for the vigor, skill, and impartiality, of their administration.



JOHN BUNYAN.

JOHN BUNYAN, author of "Pilgrim's Progress," was born in 1628 at Elstow, near Bedford, England. His father was a tinker (which occupation John for a time followed), and he gave his son an education merely such as his circumstances could afford. His religious education was entirely neglected, and as he was associated with the lowest of the people, in an age of rude manners, brutalizing customs, and gross popular ignorance, he grew up extremely profligate, and was particularly addicted to "speaking rashly and unadvisedly with his lips." As he advanced in years his habits yielded to the religious enthusiasm of the age, of which Cromwell was the leader, and he was present at the siege of Leicester in 1645, where he escaped death by allowing another soldier to take his place as a sentinel who was killed.

At the age of nineteen Bunyan married a young girl whose parents were godly, and who brought him, as her only dowry, a few religious books, which set him thinking seriously, and induced him to reform his habits. In 1655 he joined the baptist church at Bedford, whose minister had been a major in the republican army. Bunyan became a preacher, and was the first victim of the persecuting laws enacted at the Restoration. He was convicted and sentenced to perpetual banishment for holding unlawful conventicles and assemblies, and committed to Bedford jail, where he was confined for twelve and a half years. The jail was a small old building on the bridge, whose dungeons were damp, dismal, and unhealthy. They were crowded with the victims of persecution, selected from all classes of non-conformists. To these Bunyan preached, and here he composed that greatest of all allegories, "Pilgrim's Progress." For the support of his family, he worked daily at the making of tagged thread-lace.

In the last year of his confinement he was chosen to be the teacher of the congregation at Bedford, December 12, 1671; and he was indebted for his liberation to the compassion and interest of Dr. Barlow, bishop of Lincoln. After which he travelled into several parts of England to visit and confirm the brethren of his persuasion, which procured him the epithet of *Bishop Bunyan*. When King James II. issued his proclamation for liberty of conscience, Bunyan built a meeting-house at Bedford, by public contribution; and he frequently visited the non-conformist congregations in London. Multitudes crowded, even

at a very early hour in the morning, to hear the eloquent tinker, and among them were some of the most learned divines of the day, who envied the power with which a man, whose vocabulary was only English, could subdue the hearts of the people. On one of his journeys to London, in 1688, he was overtaken by excessive rain, and in consequence was attacked by an inflammatory fever, and died on the 31st of August, in Snow Hill, in the sixty-first year of his age, and was buried at Bunhill fields, near the artillery-ground, in the city.

It will be observed that Bunyan's experience qualified him admirably for writing "Pilgrim's Progress." It was substantially his own autobiography idealized—his "Grace Abounding" expanded and cast into an allegorical and dramatic form. He knew the world's wickedness—all that appertained to the Valley of Destruction—not as a spectator merely, but as an actor. He felt the wild workings of youthful passions. He had abandoned himself to shocking profanity—thus outraging his natural feeling of veneration and his sensitive conscience. Through his quick imagination, sudden gleams of conviction, flashes from the eternal world, shot into his soul, and convulsed him with the agonies of remorse, while a fierce tempest agitated his whole nature. He had made a desperate effort at self-reformation, unconscious yet of his innate weakness before God, and of his need of divine grace. His mission as the minister of a proscribed sect brought him into collision with secular wickedness in high places, whose sayings and doings were vividly impressed upon his mind.

All these impressions, however, might have gradually faded away, had he married a rich wife and led a life of tranquillity. But a protracted imprisonment intensified them all, and they were brightened in his mind by the prospective light of martyrdom. In jail, too, he became intimately acquainted with a great variety of religious characters. He was daily accustomed to theological discussions and collisions of opinion. He took the side of open communion in the controversy among his baptist brethren, and this, with other influences, gave him the tolerant and catholic tone so remarkable in the "Pilgrim."

In prison he was to a large extent weaned from the world; left much to his solitary meditations, and his active mind—borne on the wings of a powerful imagination—nourished only by the Bible and Fox's "Book of Martyrs," which it had thoroughly digested, and made almost a part of itself—expatiated freely in the regions of the spiritual and the supernatural, till truths, errors, principles, and passions, with facility embodied themselves in human shapes, and fancy gave to "airy nothing a local habitation and a name." His mind soared among the stars, and penetrated the dark abyss of wo, till devils and demons became his familiar companions. Had he been doomed to solitary confinement, the issue might have been fanaticism or insanity.

We question, however, if Bunyan's mind would have retained its perfect equilibrium, and its genuine, unsoured sympathy, during so long an imprisonment, or that he ever would, or could, have written the "Pilgrim's Progress," without the steady and sanitary influence of his domestic ties—without the healing and hallowing influences of wife and children. Having lost his first wife he married a second—a woman of strong and noble mind, and of warm and devoted affection, who thrice pleaded for him heroically before the judges of the land. She and her children often gathered round the confessor in his dungeon, which was lightened by their presence. There was one child especially—a little blind girl—who often sat by his knee, and whose helpless condition especially drew forth his sympathy. With such objects before his mind, with such human cords ever pulling at his heart, the present life retained for him all its freshness and reality in spite of the floods of splendor that poured upon his mind from the heavenly world, and saved him from the fanatical egotism which has often been the disease of such a mind as his, preying upon itself for want of the outlets of kindred sympathizing hearts.



JOHN DRYDEN.

JOHN DRYDEN, one of the most celebrated English poets, was born at Aldwinkle, Northamptonshire, in 1631, and received his education at Westminster school and Trinity college, Cambridge. On the death of his father, in 1654, he came to London, and acted as secretary to his relation, Sir Gilbert Pickering, who was one of Cromwell's council; and on the death of the protector, he wrote his well-known laudatory stanzas on that event. At the Restoration, however, he greeted Charles II. with a poem, entitled "*Astrea Redux*," which was quickly followed by a panegyric on the coronation; and from that time his love for the royal house of Stuart appears to have known no decay. In 1661 he produced his first play, "*The Duke of Guise*," but the first that was performed was "*The Wild Gallant*," which appeared in the year following. In 1667 he published his "*Annus Mirabilis*;" and his reputation, both as a poet and a royalist, being now established, he was appointed poet laureate and historiographer royal, with a salary of two hundred pounds, per annum. He now became professionally a writer for the stage, and produced many pieces, some of which have been strongly censured for their licentiousness and want of good taste. In 1681 he commenced his career of political satire; and at the express desire of Charles II., composed his famous poem of "*Absalom and Achitophel*," which he followed up by "*The Medal*" and "*A Satire on Sedition*." His next satire was "*Mac Flecknoe*;" after which appeared "*Religio Laici*," a compendious view of the arguments in favor of revelation. At the accession of James II., Dryden became a Roman catholic, and, like most converts, endeavored to defend his new faith at the expense of the old one, in a poem called "*The Hind and Panther*," which was admirably answered by Prior and Montague, in "*The Country Mouse and City Mouse*." The abdication of James deprived Dryden of all his official emoluments; and during the ten concluding years of

his life, when he actually wrote for bread, he produced some of the finest pieces of which our language can boast. His translation of Virgil, which alone would be sufficient to immortalize his memory, appeared in 1697; and soon after, that masterpiece of lyric poetry, "Alexander's Feast," his "Fables," &c. The freedom, grace, strength, and melody of his versification have never been surpassed, and in satire he stands unrivalled. His school is not that of the highly imaginative, but rather of the intense, energetic, and pointed, in feeling and expression. Pope, who is to be classed as, in many respects, his pupil, may have excelled him in precision, regularity, and neatness of diction; but he has not approached Dryden either in the rich and varied music of his verse, or in the cordiality of his indignant declamation, or in the exquisitely free and easy flow of his merely discursive passages. There is nothing, indeed, more perfect in the language than Dryden's reasoning in rhyme. Here, and in everything else, his extraordinary command of expression is one of the chief sources of his strength. Certainly few writers have wielded language with a more perfect mastery of the weapon. And it is this which not only gives much of its power to his poetry, but has imparted to his prose style a charm that has been rarely equalled. As a dramatic writer, though he has many striking beauties, he has almost completely failed, and perhaps to a greater degree than he otherwise would have done, simply because he was so consummate a rhetorician. He died on the first of May, 1700, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, in a grave next to that of Chaucer.

CHRISTOPHER WREN.

CHRISTOPHER WREN, the celebrated architect, was born October 20, 1632, at East Knowle, in Wiltshire, England, of which parish his father was rector. He early gave proof of that ingenuity and aptitude for scientific pursuits by which he was afterward so eminently distinguished, having in his thirteenth year invented a new astronomical instrument, and soon afterward various other mathematical contrivances. At the age of fourteen he was sent to Wadham college, Oxford, and here his remarkable proficiency in various branches of learning, and especially in the mathematics, soon made him known to various persons of distinction and influence. Young as he was at this time, he was one of the original members of the club which was formed at Oxford in 1648 for philosophical discussion and experiments, and which eventually gave rise to the Royal Society.

In 1657, Wren was chosen professor of astronomy at Gresham college; and on the restoration was appointed to the Savilian professorship of astronomy at Oxford. It was very soon after this that he was first called upon to exercise his genius in architecture (a study, however, which had previously engaged a good deal of his attention) by being appointed assistant to the surveyor-general, Sir John Denham, who, in truth, neither knew nor pretended to know anything of the duties of the office which he held. This led to Wren's employment on the work on which his popular fame principally rests, the rebuilding of the cathedral of St. Paul's after the great fire. The erection of this noble edifice occupied him for thirty-five years; but neither prevented him from designing, during the same period, and superintending the completion of many other buildings, nor even interrupted his pursuit of the most abstract branches of science. Sir Christopher Wren is generally spoken of only as a great architect; but he was also, in truth, one of the first mathematicians that England has ever produced. Among the host of eminent cultivators of mathematical physics by

whom that age was distinguished, there is perhaps scarcely a name, with the exception of that of Newton, which deserves to be placed before his. His mechanical inventions were very numerous, and many of them of sterling ingenuity. Among other things, there is every reason to suppose that to him we are really indebted for the invention of the art of mezzotinto engraving, the credit of which has generally been awarded to Prince Rupert (son of Frederick, king of Bohemia, by Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England, and chief commander of the royalist forces against Cromwell. His discovery of mezzotint was said to have been accidentally made by observing a soldier scraping a rusty gun-barrel).

Wren was created LL. D. by the University of Oxford in 1661, and was knighted in 1674. In 1680 he was elected to the presidency by the Royal Society, and in 1685 he entered parliament as representative of the borough of Plympton. While superintending the erection of the cathedral of St. Paul's, all the salary that Wren received was about one thousand dollars a year. He was also used in other respects by the commissioners with extreme illiberality and meanness; and at last the ingratitude of his country, or rather of his times, was consummated by his dismissal, in 1718, from his place of surveyor of public works. He was at this time in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

This great and good man died at Hampton Court, on the 25th of February, 1723, in the ninety-first year of his age. His remains were accompanied by a splendid attendance to their appropriate resting-place under the noble edifice which his genius had reared; and over the grave was fixed a tablet with the inscription in Latin (since placed in front of the organ): "Beneath is laid the builder of this church and city, CHRISTOPHER WREN, who lived above ninety years, not for himself but for the public good. Reader, if thou seekest for his monument, look around." Among the London churches which were built from the designs of Wren, one of the most beautiful, as to its interior, is that of St. Stephen's, Walbrook, of which the following engraving may give some notion





JOHN LOCKE.

THE eminent author of the "Essay on the Human Understanding" was born August 29, 1632, at Wrington, in Somersetshire, England. Locke's father had been bred a lawyer, and when the civil war broke out, in 1643, he evinced the character of his political principles by heading a company in the service of the parliament. Locke himself received his education first at Westminster, and afterward at Christ-church college, Oxford, where he took the degree of master of arts in 1658, and then proceeded to prepare himself for the medical profession. With the exception of about twelve months which he spent on the continent, in the capacity of secretary to the British envoy at the court of the elector of Brandenburg, he continued his medical studies without interruption till the year 1666, when he became known to the celebrated earl of Shaftesbury, then Lord Ashley. From his acquaintance with this nobleman the future life of Mr. Locke took much of its complexion; and it is among the most honorable facts which belong to the mixed fame of Lord Shaftesbury that to the end of his life he continued the steady patron, and retained the friendship and intimacy of the philosopher. It is said to have been the advice and urgent exhortation of Shaftesbury which turned Locke from the further pursuit of his profession, to the study of politics and metaphysics.

The first consequence of the patronage which he had thus obtained was, his introduction to many of the most distinguished persons in the literary and political world, and the general estimation in which his talents soon began to be held. An evidence of the last-mentioned circumstance is his admission, in 1670, as a member of the Royal Society, then recently incorporated. About this time also he began to sketch out in his mind the plan of his celebrated "Essay." In 1672, Shaftesbury being made lord-chancellor, bestowed upon Locke the office of secretary of presentations; but this he lost on the chancellor's dismissal the following year. He subsequently obtained the appointment

of secretary to the board of trade ; but the board being dissolved, he was again without employment.

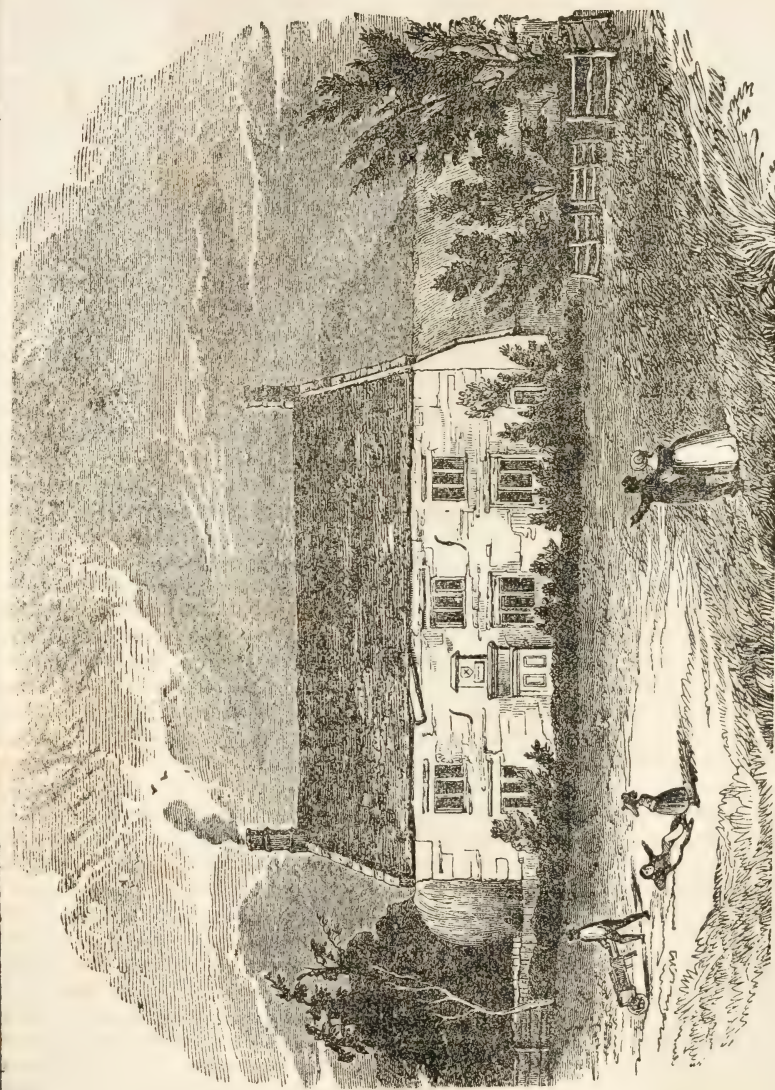
In these circumstances, Locke deemed it prudent to resume his medical studies, and accordingly, having taken the degree of bachelor of physic, he went to France, and took up his residence at Montpelier. He did not return to England till 1679, when he again became a resident in the family of Lord Shaftesbury, whom finally he accompanied to Holland three years after, remaining there with his patron and friend till the death of the latter. His connection with Lord Shaftesbury had made Locke very obnoxious to the government of his own country ; and he found it advisable to remain an exile, until the revolution of 1688 once more made the air of England fit for free spirits to breathe. During his residence abroad he was ejected, by the king's command, from his studentship at Christ-church college ; and being falsely accused of the authorship of certain publications, which had given offence to the government, as well as suspected of participation in the rebellion of the duke of Monmouth (a natural son of Charles II.), he was exposed to great annoyance and danger, and was even obliged to conceal himself for about a year.

It was while in Holland that Locke commenced his career as an author, by the publication of his first "Letter on Toleration," in Latin. It produced a great sensation, and was immediately translated into Dutch, French, and English. On his return to England he was made a commissioner of appeals ; and in the following year, 1690, he gave to the world the "Essay on the Human Understanding." The masterly character of this performance was at once attested by the attention which it excited both at home and abroad, by the ardor with which it was read, and the numerous antagonists by whom it was attacked. Although a folio volume, and on no popular subject, it had gone through four editions (besides being translated into French and Latin) by the year 1700. The fifth edition (also in folio) appeared, after the author's death, in 1706 ; and the work has since been repeatedly reprinted in various forms. The most formidable opponent, by whom some of its opinions were controverted during the lifetime of Locke, was the learned and eloquent Dr. Edward Stillingfleet, bishop of Worcester. The same year in which his "Essay" appeared, Mr. Locke gave to the world his second "Letter on Toleration," and his two "Treatises on Government," in answer to an absurd book of Sir Robert Filmer in support of divine right and passive obedience. These were followed by other publications, which we shall not stop to enumerate. In 1695, he was made a commissioner of trade and plantations ; but about six or seven years afterward, finding that an asthma, with which he had long been afflicted, was become so much worse as to unfit him for performing the duties of his office, he very nobly insisted upon resigning it, declaring, although strongly urged by the king himself to consent to retain the emoluments of the place, that his conscience would not allow him to receive a salary for which he was able to do no work. He then retired altogether from public life, and devoted himself entirely to the study of the Scriptures. In this manner he passed about two years, and then expired on the 28th of October, 1704, in the seventy-second year of his age. His "Essay on the Human Understanding" has given Locke an immortal name in English literature and in the history of philosophy. It has undoubtedly contributed more than any other book to render popular the study of the important subject of which it treats ; and, whatever difference of opinion may be entertained with regard to some of its fundamental doctrines, it will be acknowledged by every candid judge to have thrown much new light on many of the operations of the human mind. As to the private character of this admirable man, it was one of the most beautiful and stainless that ever adorned human nature ; and rarely has there been seen a nobler example than he exhibited of the union of high intellect and equally elevated virtue.



ISAAC NEWTON.

ISAAC NEWTON, the most distinguished philosopher, mathematician, and astronomer of modern times, was born at Woolsthorpe, in Lincolnshire, England, on Christmas day, December 25, 1642. Losing his father, Isaac Newton, senior, in his childhood, the care of him devolved on his mother, who gave him an excellent education. In 1654 he was sent to Grantham school, and at the age of eighteen removed to Trinity college, Cambridge, where he had the learned Mr. (afterward Dr.) Isaac Barrow for his tutor. After going through Euclid's Elements, he proceeded to the study of Descartes' Geometry, with Oughtred's Clavis and Kepler's Optics, in all of which he made marginal notes as he went along. It was in this early course that he invented the method of series and fluxions, which he afterward brought to perfection, though his claim to the discovery was unjustly contested by Leibnitz. At the age of twenty-two, Mr. Newton took his degree of bachelor of arts, and about the same time he applied to the grinding of optic glasses for telescopes; and having procured a glass prism in order to try the phenomena of colors lately discovered by Grimaldi, the result of his observations was his new theory of light and colors. It was not long after this, that he made his grand discovery of the laws of gravitation, to which his attention was first turned by his seeing an apple fall from a tree; but it was not till 1687 that the important principle which forms the foundation of the Newtonian philosophy was first published, under the title of "*Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica*." On his return to the university, in 1667, he was chosen fellow of his college, and took his degree of master of arts. Two years afterward he succeeded Dr. Barrow in the mathematical professorship, on which occasion he read a course of optical lectures in Latin. He had not finished them in 1671, when he was chosen fellow of the Royal Society, to which learned body he communicated his theory of light.



Manor-House of Woolsthorpe, Birthplace of Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire, England.

and colors, which was followed by his account of a new telescope invented by him, and other interesting papers. When the privileges of the university of Cambridge were attacked by James II., Mr. Newton was appointed to appear as one of her delegates in the high commission-court, where he pleaded with so much strength, that the king thought proper to stop his proceedings. He was next chosen a member of the convention of parliament, in which he sat till it was dissolved. In 1696, he was made warden of the mint, and afterward master of that office; which duties he discharged with the greatest honor till his death. On his last promotion he nominated Mr. Whitson to fill his chair at Cambridge, with all the profits of the place, and resigned it entirely to him in 1703. During the same year he was chosen president of the Royal Society, in which station he continued twenty-five years. He was also a member of the academy of sciences at Paris, having been chosen in 1699. In 1704, he published his treatise on "The Reflections, Refractions, Inflections, and Colors, of Light;" but the whole merit of this extraordinary work has not been fully appreciated till lately. In 1705, he received the honor of knighthood from Queen Anne; and he died, March 20, 1727. On the 28th, his body lay in state in the Jerusalem chamber, whence it was conveyed to Westminster abbey, the pall being borne by the lord-chancellor, two dukes, and three earls. A monument was afterward erected to his memory; and his statue, by Roubiliac, has been placed in Trinity college. He enjoyed his faculties to the close of his long life. His temper, also, was remarkably even, and he might almost be said to have carried patience too far, particularly in suffering other men to run away with the merit of his discoveries. This would have been the case in regard to the invention of fluxions, if some of his friends had not interposed, and asserted the claim of their illustrious countryman. Sir Isaac was not only a philosopher, but a Christian, and spent much of his time in elucidating the Scriptures; nor could anything discompose his mind so much as light and irreverent expressions on the subject of religion. When his friends expressed their admiration of his discoveries, he said: "To myself I seem to have been as a child playing on the seashore, while the immense ocean of truth lay unexplored before me."

The manor house of Woolsthorpe, where the illustrious Newton was born, and a view of which is given opposite, is still preserved as a venerated relic by its present proprietor. The building itself presents nothing to attract attention; but as the house where one of the greatest philosophers of modern times first saw the light, it is viewed with affectionate reverence, by all who esteem high genius and true nobleness of heart. It is pleasant to know that the vast and penetrating mind which could dictate such a work as the "Principia" was once an inhabitant of an insignificant cottage. It is pleasant to know that the author of such a theory as that developed in his great work, with all its dependent circumstances, was a mere man with all the cravings and affections of mortality. Yet, though his fame among men will last while the science he so enriched shall endure, there was nothing in his personal appearance or mode of life to distinguish him from his fellow-men with minds too small to compass his ideas even when developed with his own simplicity. Yes, the immortal Newton lived like other men—he ate, and drank, and slept; his dwelling was a cottage; his observatory his own garden; and here in the solitude of Woolsthorpe, did he contemplate the glorious works of his Creator, and imagine the means by which the harmony of the universe is maintained.

The manor-house of Woolsthorpe was repaired in 1798, and a marble tablet fixed in the room where Newton was born, with these lines by Pope:—

"Nature and Nature's laws lay hid in night;
God said, 'Let Newton be,' and all was light."



WILLIAM PENN.

WILLIAM PENN, an illustrious person among the quakers, and founder of the colony of Pennsylvania, was the son of Sir William Penn, knight, admiral of England, and one of the commanders at the taking of Jamaica. His son William, the subject of the present sketch, was born in the parish of St. Catherine, near the Tower of London, October 14, 1644, and educated at the school of Chigwell in Essex, "where, at eleven years of age," says Mr. Wood, "being retired in a chamber alone, he was so suddenly surprised with an inward comfort, and (as he thought) an external glory in the room, that he has said many times how from that time he had the seal of divinity and immortality; that there was also a God, and that the soul of man was capable of enjoying his divine communications." Penn says himself, in his "Travels," that "the Lord first appeared to him about the twelfth year of his age, anno 1656; and that, betwixt that and the fifteenth, the Lord visited him, and gave him divine impressions of himself."

Afterward he went to a private school on Tower-hill, and had likewise the advantage of a domestic tutor. In 1660, he was entered a gentleman commoner of Christ church in Oxford, where he continued two years, and delighted much in manly sports at times of recreation: but meanwhile, being influenced by the preaching of Thomas Loe, a quaker, he and other students withdrew from the national form of worship, and held private meetings, where they prayed and preached among themselves. This giving great offence to the governors of the university, Penn was fined for nonconformity; and, continuing still zealous in his religious exercises, was at length expelled his college.

Upon his return home, he was severely treated by his father on the same account: he says that "he was whipped, beaten, and turned out of doors, by him, in 1662." The father's passion, however, abating, he was sent to France, in company with some persons of quality, where he continued a considerable time, and returned well skilled in the French language, and with a very polite and courtly behavior. Then he was admitted to Lincoln's Inn, with a view of studying the law, and there continued till the plague broke out in 1665. In 1666, his father committed to his care a considerable estate in Ireland, which occasioned his residence in that kingdom; where, instead of frequenting the

amusements of the place, he fell into a serious and retired way of living; and, by the preaching of the above-mentioned Thomas Loe at Cork, was prevailed on to profess himself publicly a quaker. Other reasons, as we learn from Wood, were then assigned for his profession; as, the loss of his mistress, a fine young lady at Dublin: or, as some said, because he refused to fight a duel: but he was doubtless riveted in it thoroughly before his journey to Ireland. He now attended their meetings constantly: in one of which, at Cork, November, 1667, he, with many others, was apprehended and imprisoned; but, upon writing a letter to the earl of Orrery, was soon after discharged. His father, hearing of his having embraced quakerism, sent for him to England; and, finding him too much fixed to be brought to a compliance with the fashion of the times, seemed inclinable to have borne with him in other respects, provided he would be uncovered in the presence of the king, the duke, and himself. Penn betook himself to supplication and fasting, to know the Divine will and pleasure upon his head; after which, refusing to comply, he was by his father turned out of doors a second time; who yet retained so much affection for him as secretly to endeavor to procure his discharge whenever he was imprisoned for frequenting the quakers' meetings.

In 1668, he became a preacher among the quakers; and the same year published his first article on his new faith. The same year also he was committed close prisoner to the Tower of London, where he wrote several pieces; and, being discharged after seven months' imprisonment, went in 1669 to Ireland, where he preached among the quakers, and continued to write in defence of his new religion. Returning to England, and the conventicle act prohibiting the meeting of dissenters under severe penalties, he was committed to Newgate, August, 1670, for preaching in Grace-church street; but, being tried for that offence at the Old Bailey, was acquitted by the jury. September 16, the same year, his father died; and, being perfectly reconciled to him, left him an estate of between seven and eight thousand dollars per annum, in England and Ireland. About this time he held a public dispute, concerning the universality of the Divine light, with Ives, an anabaptist teacher, at West Wicomb in Buckinghamshire. February, 1670-'71, he was committed again to Newgate for preaching publicly, where he continued six months. After his discharge, he went to Holland and Germany, but seems not to have made any stay.

In 1672, Penn married the daughter of Sir William Springett, formerly of Darling, in Sussex, who had been killed during the civil wars at the siege of Bamber; and, soon after his marriage, settled with his family at Rickmersworth in Hertfordshire. He continued from time to time to publish a variety of tracts, as he found it necessary to support the cause of quakerism. In 1677, he travelled again into Holland and Germany, in order to propagate the new light; and had frequent conversations with the princess Elizabeth, daughter of the queen of Bohemia, and sister to the princess Sophia, grandmother to George II. The princess Elizabeth was a great admirer of philosophy and poetry, and wrote several letters to Penn, which he inserted in his "Travels," published in 1694, octavo.

In 1681, Charles II., in consideration of the services of Sir William Penn, and sundry debts due to him from the crown at the time of his decease, granted to Mr. Penn and his heirs, by letters-patent, the province lying on the west side of the river Delaware in North America, and made them absolute proprietors and governors of that country. The name too was changed, in honor of Penn, from the "New Netherlands" to "Pennsylvania"—it having been a *sy/va*, or country overgrown with woods. Upon this he published "A Brief Account of the Province of Pennsylvania, 1681," folio, with the king's patent, and other papers, describing the country and its produce, proposing an easy purchase of lands, and good terms of settlement, for such as were inclined to remove thither.

He drew up likewise "the fundamental constitutions of Pennsylvania," in twenty-four articles; and also "the frame of the government of the province of Pennsylvania." Many single persons, and some families out of England and Wales, went over; and, having made and improved their plantations to good advantage, the governor, in order to secure the new planters from the native Indians, appointed commissioners to confer with them about land, and to confirm a league of peace, which they accordingly did. In October, 1682, Penn arrived with a body of two thousand immigrants. In 1683, he arranged a meeting with the native chiefs, under the canopy of a spacious elm-tree, near the present site of Philadelphia. They appeared on the day appointed, in their rude attire, and with brandished weapons, beneath the shade of those dense woods which covered what is now a fine and cultivated plain. On learning that the English approached, they deposited their arms and sat down in groups, each tribe beneath its own chieftain. Penn then stepping forward in his usual plain dress and unarmed, held forth in his hand the parchment on which the treaty was engrossed. In a simple speech, he announced to them those principles of equity and amity upon which he desired that all their future intercourse should be conducted: he besought them to keep the parchment for three generations. The Indians replied, in their usual solemn and figurative language, that they would live in peace with him and with his children while the sun and moon should endure.

Penn returned to England in 1684; and James II. coming soon after to the throne, he was taken into a very great degree of favor with his majesty. He had indeed enjoyed the same while the king was duke of York; and this exposed him so strongly to the imputation of being secretly a papist, that even Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, suspected him. They had a correspondence upon this head, the result of which was, that Tillotson owned himself "fully satisfied that there was no just ground for the suspicion, and therefore did heartily beg his pardon for it."

At the revolution of 1688, being suspected of disaffection to the new government of William and Mary, and looked upon as a papist or Jesuit under the mask of a quaker, Penn was examined before the privy council in December that year, and obliged to give security for his appearance the first day of the next term, which was then continued to Easter term, on the last day of which he was discharged. In 1690, when the French fleet threatened a descent on England, he was again examined before the council, upon an accusation of corresponding with the late King James, and was held upon bail for some time, but discharged in Trinity term. He was attacked a third time the same year, and Burnet (then bishop of Salisbury) represents him as deeply involved in the plot, with Lord Preston and others, for the restoration of James; insomuch that he was deprived of the privilege of appointing a governor for Pennsylvania, till, upon his vindication of himself, he was restored to his right of government. He designed now to go over a second time to Pennsylvania, and published proposals in print for another settlement there; when a fresh accusation appeared against him, backed with the oath of one William Fuller, who was afterward declared by the parliament a notorious impostor, a cheat, a false accuser. A warrant was granted for Penn's apprehension, which he narrowly escaped at his return from the funeral of George Fox,* January 16, 1690, upon

* GEORGE FOX, alluded to above, founder of the Society of Friends, or quakers, was born at Drayton, in Leicestershire, England, in 1624, and apprenticed to a grazier. At the age of nineteen he persuaded himself that he had received a Divine command to devote himself solely to religion. He accordingly forsook his relations, and wandered from place to place, leading a life of itinerancy, in which he fasted much, walked abroad in retired places, studying the Bible, and sometimes sat in a hollow tree for a day together. In 1648, he began to propagate his opinions, and commenced public preacher. At Derby, his followers were first denominated quakers, in consequence of their tremulous manner of delivery. He was taken up in 1655, and sent a prisoner to Cromwell, who, being satisfied with his pacific intentions, set him at liberty. In fact, he was more than once indebted to the protector for his freedom when committed to prison by the country magistracy for his frequent interruption



William Penn making a Treaty with the Indians and distributing Presents.

which he concealed himself for two or three years, and during his recess wrote several pieces. At the end of 1693, through the interest of Lord Somers and others, he was admitted to appear before the king and council, when he represented his innocence so effectually, that he was acquitted.

Penn's wife dying in February, 1693-'94, he married another, the daughter of a Bristol merchant, in March, 1695-'96, by whom he had four sons and one daughter; and the month after, his eldest son by his former wife died of a consumption, in his twenty-first year. In 1697, there being a bill depending in the house of lords against blasphemy, he presented to the house "A Caution requisite in the consideration of that Bill"—in which he advised that the word "blasphemy" might be so explained as that no ambiguous interpretation might give occasion to malicious persons to prosecute, under that name, whatever they should be pleased to call so: but the bill was dropped. In April, 1698, he set out from Bristol, where he then lived, for Ireland; and, the winter following, again resided at Bristol. In August, 1699, he embarked with his family for Pennsylvania; but during his absence, some persons endeavored to undermine both his and other proprietary governments, under pretence of advancing the prerogative of the crown, and a bill for that purpose was brought into the house of lords. His friends, the proprietors and adventurers then in England, immediately represented the hardship of their case to the parliament, soliciting time for his return to answer for himself, and accordingly pressing him to come over as soon as possible. He, seeing it necessary to comply, summoned an assembly at Philadelphia, to whom (on the 15th of September, 1701) he made a speech, declaring the reasons of his leaving them; and the next day took shipping for England, where he arrived about the middle of December. After his return, the bill, which, through the solicitations of his friends, had been postponed at the last session of parliament, was wholly laid aside.

Upon the accession of Queen Anne, Penn was in great favor with her, and often at court: and for his convenience took lodgings, first at Kensington, afterward at Knightsbridge, where he resided till 1706; and then removed with his family to a convenient house, about a mile from Brentford. In 1707, he was involved in a lawsuit with the executors of a person who had formerly been his steward; but his cause, though many thought him aggrieved, was attended with such circumstances, that the court of chancery did not think proper to relieve him; upon which account he was obliged to live in the Old Bailey, within the rules of the "Fleet," till the matter in dispute was accommodated. Then it seems to have been that he mortgaged the province of Pennsylvania for six thousand six hundred pounds sterling.

In 1711, the air of London not agreeing with his declining constitution, Penn took a seat at Rushcomb, near Twyford, in Buckinghamshire, where he spent the remainder of his life. In 1712, he was seized at distant times with three several fits, supposed to be apoplectic, by the last of which his understanding and memory were so impaired as to render him incapable of public action for the future. He did not die, however, till July 30, 1718, in his seventy-fourth year, when he was buried at Jordan's in Buckinghamshire, where his former wife and several of his family lay. He wrote a vast number of things, among the most important of which is his tract entitled "No Cross no Crown," which ably treats the subjects of a future life and the immortality of the soul.

of ministers while performing divine service. In 1666, he was liberated from prison by order of Charles II., and immediately commenced the task of forming his followers into a formal and united society. In 1669, he married the widow of Judge Fell, and soon after came over to America, for the express purpose of making proselyts. On his return he was again thrown into prison, but was soon released, and went to Holland. Returning to England, and refusing to pay tithes, he was cast in a suit for the recovery of them, and again visited the continent. His health had now become impaired by the incessant toil and suffering he had endured, and he again revisited his native land, living in a retired manner till his death, in 1690. He was sincere in his religious opinions, and a rigid observer of the general moral duties. His writings consist of his "Journals," "Epistles," and "Doctrinal Pieces."



LORD SOMERS.

JOHN SOMERS, chancellor of England, son of an attorney, was born at Worcester, in 1652. He was educated at a private school in Staffordshire, and then entered at Trinity college, Oxford, from which he removed to the Middle Temple. He united here the study of polite literature with that of the law, and in 1681 he assisted in the publication of "A Just and Modest Vindication of the Proceedings of the last two Parliaments," which Charles II. had dissolved with dissatisfaction. He afterward highly distinguished himself as an able and eloquent pleader, and was in 1633 one of the counsel for Pilkinton, Lord Gray, and others, who had caused a riot in London, and in 1688 for the seven bishops. In the convention parliament of 1689, he was member for Worcester, and was one of the managers of the commons at a conference with the lords about the word "abdicated." He was soon after made solicitor-general and knighted, and in 1692 appointed attorney-general. In 1697 he was raised to the peerage and made lord-chancellor; but in 1700 he was removed from his high situation, and accused by the commons of high crimes and misdemeanors, of which, upon trial before his peers, he was acquitted.

Somers now abandoned the struggles of political life for studious retirement, and was soon after chosen president of the Royal Society. He, however, occasionally labored for the prosperity of his country in the house of lords, and projected the union between Scotland and England. In 1708, he was president of the council, but was removed by the change of ministry two years after. He grew so infirm, that he held no office under George I. He died April 26, 1716, aged sixty-four. He wrote various pieces, and translated Plutarch's life of Alcibiades, in the Lives by several hands, and also Dido's letter to Æneas, from Ovid. He was an able statesman, and a liberal promoter of learning.



EDMUND HALLEY.

EDMUND HALLEY, an eminent English astronomer and mathematician, was born, in 1656, at Haggerston, near London, England. He received his education at St. Paul's school, and Queen's college, Oxford, where he made so great a proficiency in his mathematical studies, that in 1676, he published observations on a spot in the sun, by which the motion of that body on its axis was determined. The same year he went to St. Helena, where he determined the position of three hundred and fifty stars, which procured him the name of the southern Tycho. On his return to England he was created master of arts and chosen a fellow of the Royal Society; which learned body deputed him to go to Dantzic, to adjust a dispute between Hooke and Hevelius, respecting their proper glasses for astronomical purposes. In 1680, he made the tour of Europe with Mr. Nelson; and on the passage to Calais was the first to observe the great comet—the same erratic body which was visible to the naked eye, about the middle of October, 1835, a tolerably bright star, just above the constellation of the Great Bear. After his return, he turned his attention to the theory of the planetary motions, which brought him acquainted with Isaac Newton, who intrusted to him the publication of his *Principia*. To ascertain exactly the cause of the variation of the compass, he was made commander of a ship in 1698, and sent to the Western ocean; but his crew being mutinous, he was obliged to return. The year following he sailed again, and proceeded as far south as the ice would permit; the result of which observations he published in a general chart. Soon after this he was employed to observe the course of the tides in the channel and to make a correct chart of the same. Having accomplished this object, he went to make a survey of the coast of Dalmatia, for the emperor. In 1703, he was appointed Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford; in 1705 he made public his valuable researches on the orbits of comets; in 1713, he became secretary to the Royal Society; and in 1719, he succeeded Flamsteed as astronomer royal. The remainder of his life was chiefly spent in the sedulous performance of his duties in that situation, especially in completing the theory of the motion of the moon. He died at Greenwich, Jan. 14, 1741-'2. Fontenelle thus speaks of Halley: "To his great extent of knowledge, was added constant presence of mind, and a freedom of expression, at once pertinent, judicious, and sincere. He was naturally of an ardent temper, and a generous disposition, open and punctual in his transactions, candid in his judgment, simple and blameless in his manners affable, communicative, and disinterested"



DANIEL DEFOE.

THE name of this great writer is doubtless familiar to most readers, as that of the author of *Robinson Crusoe*. Although more than a century has now elapsed since he ceased to live, he has not yet obtained in the general estimation that share of fame and that rank in English literature to which he is justly entitled. Defoe's was a life of extraordinary activity; an account of which, therefore, if given in detail, might occupy, as indeed it has been made to occupy, volumes. Here we must confine ourselves to a very rapid and general sketch.

DANIEL DEFOE was born 1661, in London, England, where his father was a butcher, of the parish of St. Giles, Cripplegate. His father, who was a dissenter, sent him to be educated at an academy at Newington Green, kept by a clergyman of his own persuasion. Here he distinguished himself by his fondness for reading everything that came in his way, and his industry in storing his mind with useful knowledge. On leaving the academy he is supposed to have been bound apprentice to a hosier; and he afterward set up for himself in that line in Freeman's Yard, Cornhill: but failing, he had recourse to his pen for a subsistence. In 1695 he was made accountant to the commissioners of the glass duty, which office he held till that impost was taken off. In 1701, he produced his "*True-Born Englishman*," a satire, coarse but characteristic. The year following appeared his "*Shortest Way with the Dissenters*," for which he was sentenced to the pillory, fined, and imprisoned. He was instrumental in promoting the union of England and Scotland. In 1713, he was again committed to prison for some political pamphlets, but Lord Oxford procured his pardon. In 1715, he published the "*Family Instructor*," a religious performance of merit; and in 1719, appeared his admirable "*Robinson Crusoe*." Defoe wrote a number of other books, among which was a "*Journal of the Plague in 1665*," by a supposed witness of it. He died in 1731.



DEAN SWIFT.

DR. JONATHAN SWIFT, dean of St. Patrick's, a celebrated political, satirical, and miscellaneous writer, was born at Dublin, Ireland, in 1667. Of a life so various, and so full of business as Swift's, it is difficult to select any part, consistent with the limits of this work, that would not rather excite curiosity than gratify it; and this, indeed, in the course of our present labors, we have frequently had reason to regret before. Jonathan Swift was the grandson of Thomas Swift, vicar of Goodrich, in Herefordshire, who married Elizabeth Dryden, aunt of the poet, and by her had six sons. One of these sons, named Jonathan, who was bred an attorney, had married before he went to reside in Ireland; and, dying soon after, left his widow pregnant. In this state she went to live with her brother-in-law, Godwin Swift, an attorney at Dublin, where she gave birth to the subject of this sketch. When Mrs. Swift returned to her friends in Leicestershire, she left this child to the care of his uncle, who sent him first to the school of Kilkenny, and next to Trinity college, Dublin, where, applying himself to history and poetry, to the neglect of academical pursuits, especially mathematics, he was at the end of four years refused the degree of bachelor of arts, and even at the end of seven years he was only admitted *speciali gratiâ*. In 1688 he lost his uncle, and being left without sup

port, he came to England, where he waited on Sir William Temple, who being related to Swift's mother by marriage, received him with kindness, and made him his companion. During his residence with that celebrated statesman, he had frequent interviews with King William, who offered him a troop of horse, which he declined, his thoughts being directed to the church. After some time he quarrelled with his patron, and went to Ireland, where he took orders, and obtained a prebend in the diocese of Conner. But he soon returned to Sir William Temple, who, sinking under age and infirmities, required his company more than ever. During the few remaining years of that statesman's life, they therefore remained together; and, on his death, Swift found himself benefited by a pecuniary legacy and the bequest of his papers. He next accompanied Lord Berkeley, one of the lords justices, to Ireland, as chaplain, and obtained from him the livings of Laracor and Rathbigan, on the former of which he went to reside. During his residence there, he invited to Ireland Miss Johnson, the lady whom he has rendered celebrated by the name of Stella, and who was the daughter of Sir William Temple's steward. She was accompanied by a Mrs. Dingley; and the two ladies lived in the neighborhood when Swift was at home, and at the parsonage-house during his absence; which mysterious connection lasted till her death. In 1701 he took his doctor's degree, and entered on the arena of public life as a political pamphleteer. He also published, though anonymously, his eccentric and humorous "Tale of a Tub," and the "Battle of the Books." On the accession of Queen Anne he visited England, where he lived during a greater part of that reign, and distinguished himself as a powerful writer on the side of the Tories. Having become intimate with Harley and Bolingbroke, he exerted himself strenuously in behalf of their party, taking a leading share in the famous tory periodical, entitled the *Examiner*, while with his battery of pamphlets and pasquinades, always replete with bitter sarcasm or bold invective, he kept up a constant and galling fire on their political adversaries. But though immersed in politics, he did not neglect general literature. In 1711 he published a "Proposal for correcting, improving, and ascertaining the English Tongue," in a letter to the earl of Oxford, the object of which was to establish an institution to secure the purity of the language. A bishopric in England was the grand object of his ambition; but Archbishop Sharpe, on the ground, it is said, of his "Tale of a Tub," having infused into the mind of Queen Anne suspicions of his orthodoxy, the only preferment his ministerial friends could give him, was the Irish deanery, of St. Patrick's to which he was presented in 1713. He accordingly, though by no means willingly, returned to Dublin, where he attended to his ecclesiastical functions, and made some important reforms in the chapters of St. Patrick's. In 1716 he was privately married to Miss Johnson; but the ceremony was attended with no acknowledgment which could gratify the feelings of the victim of his pride and cruelty. The ascendancy which he acquired over Miss Hester Vanhomrigh, another accomplished female, was attended with circumstances still more censurable. He became acquainted with this lady in London, in 1712; and as she possessed, with a large fortune, a taste for literature, Swift took pleasure in affording her instruction. The pupil became enamored of her tutor, and even proposed marriage to him; but being probably at that time engaged to Stella, he avoided giving her a decisive answer. This affair terminated fatally; for, ultimately discovering his secret union with Stella, the unfortunate lady never recovered the shock, and died in fourteen months after, in 1723. It was about this period that he made his first great efforts to better the condition of Ireland. He published a "Proposal for the universal Use of Irish Manufactures," which rendered him highly popular; and when his celebrated "Letters" appeared, in which he so ably exposed the job of Wood's patent for a supply of copper coinage, he became the idol of the Irish people.

Soon after this, he wrote that admirable compound of satiric humor, "Gulliver's Travels," and the next event worthy of record is the death of his much-injured Stella. And now the fate which he had often apprehended overtook him; the faculties of his mind decayed before his body, and a gradual abolition of reason settled into absolute idiocy. After three years of mental suffering he died in October, 1745, aged seventy-eight; having bequeathed the greatest part of his fortune to a hospital for lunatics and idiots. It would be useless now to enumerate his various writings; the most important are, "The Drapier's Letters," "The Tale of a Tub," and "Gulliver's Travels." From each and all of these, as well as from his domestic history, a tolerably correct estimate of his real character may be drawn, difficult though it be to delineate a character in which the best and worst of human passions are so strangely blended.

THOMAS CORAM.

IN the early part of the eighteenth century, the strongly benevolent feelings of an humble individual were frequently harrowed, on his daily return from the city of London, to the eastern parts of that metropolis, by witnessing "young children exposed, sometimes alive, sometimes dead, and sometimes dying." This individual was Captain Thomas Coram, master of a ship in the merchant service, who lived in that part of London which is usually the residence of sea-faring persons. His truly philanthropic zeal led him to consider the means by which the public spirit could be aroused on behalf of the unhappy children thus abandoned through the indigence or cruelty of their parents; and without the influence of either rank or wealth, he resolved that something should be done to mitigate the evil. He commenced his task prudently by making the subject a topic of conversation; and having ascertained that, in a limited circle, opinions were favorable to his scheme, he proceeded to obtain for it a wider and more substantial support. For seventeen years he pursued his object with untiring perseverance. At length, on the 20th of November, 1739, he had the gratification of presenting to a meeting of noblemen and gentlemen, at Somerset house, a charter of incorporation for a "Hospital for the Maintenance and education of Exposed and Deserted Young Children." This has since become one of the richest institutions in the metropolis, and for many years after its incorporation was the most popular.

It would have been impossible to unite so many benevolent individuals in support of this institution, unless a deep conviction had prevailed of the enormity and general prevalence of the evil which it was designed to remove. It detracts nothing from the philanthropy of Captain Coram's character, that he did not perceive the consequences of a wealthy institution for the reception of foundlings; and if the evil which occasioned its existence were again prevalent on the same scale, which happily is not the case, the enormous blunder would not be committed of which it is a most striking monument. Taking as data the history of the foundling hospital, we may look back upon the period since its origin as marked by great improvements both moral and intellectual.

It is interesting to observe the means by which a single individual can be instrumental in doing good to his fellow-creatures. In the first place, it is true, there must be a disposition to acknowledge the general existence of an evil, before any hope can be entertained of providing a remedy. It often, however, falls to the lot of one man to labor in the demonstrations of this fact. He is so endowed as to perceive it with great acuteness and under various forms. Then others begin to see the object in the same light, and at length, the per



Captain Thomas Coram.

ceptions of the mass being opened, a general sympathy is felt with his views which by means of co-operation, effects with ease what would otherwise be unattainable. No individual whose faculties are of one common level can succeed in the work of arousing a whole community. One feeling must be predominant, and it is to its strength that success is to be attributed, for it overlooks obstacles and gives energy to the whole of a man's faculties. In Captain Coram, as in St. Vincent de Paul, the feeling which sustained him was benevolence of the purest and most disinterested character. Added to this, his manner was strikingly indicative of the honesty and genuineness of his motives, and at once procured confidence. When this was gained his benevolent enthusiasm carried him forward, and his ardor for the accomplishment of his kind-hearted schemes never abated until they were accomplished. He was so completely immersed in the charities of life that after his wife's death his own affairs were neglected, and a private subscription was raised for his support. Had his wants been more generally known he would have been placed in affluent circumstances, but this was not his wish. On the design of his friends to contribute toward his support for the remainder of his life being made known to him, and being asked if such a step would be offensive, he

said:—"I have not wasted the little wealth of which I was formerly possessed in self-indulgence or vain expenses, and am not ashamed to confess that in my old age I am poor." The prince of Wales contributed twenty guineas a year to this fund.

Captain Coram died March 29, 1751, at his lodgings near Leicester square, in the eighty-fourth year of his age. His last request was that he might be buried in the chapel of the foundling hospital. Six of the governors supported the pall which covered his remains, and many other friends of the institution were present. The choir of St Paul's Cathedral attended voluntarily and took a part in the funeral service.

Soon after the charter of incorporation for the foundling hospital had been obtained, it was moved by Dr. Mead that the special thanks of the governors were due to Captain Coram "for his indefatigable and successful application in favor of the charity, which otherwise would have wanted a legal foundation." His portrait by Hogarth (from which our engraving is taken) is at the hospital, and his services to it are recorded in an inscription over his remains. Several streets westward of the institution are named after him.



JOSEPH ADDISON.

JOSEPH ADDISON, so highly celebrated in English literature, was the son of Dr. Lancelot Addison. He was born May 1, 1672, at Milston, and, after receiving the rudiments of an English education at Salisbury and Litchfield, was sent to the charterhouse, where he contracted his first intimacy with Mr., afterward Sir Richard Steele. At the age of fifteen, he was entered of Queen's college, Oxford, where he soon became distinguished for classical literature, and for his skill in Latin poetry. At twenty-two, he addressed some English verses to the veteran poet, Dryden; and shortly afterward published a translation of part of Virgil's fourth Georgic. In 1695, he addressed a complimentary poem, on one of the campaigns of King William, to the lord-keeper Somers, who procured him a pension from the crown, of three hundred pounds per annum, to enable him to travel. On his return home, in 1702, he found his old friends out of place; but, in 1704, he was introduced by Lord Halifax to Lord Godolphin, as a fit person to celebrate the victory of Blenheim; on which occasion he produced "The Campaign," for which he was appointed commissioner of appeals. After this he accompanied the marquis of Wharton to Ireland, as secretary. While there, Steele commenced the "Tattler," to

which Addison liberally contributed. This was followed by the "Spectator," which was also enriched by the contributions of Addison, whose papers are distinguished by one of the letters of the word *Clio*. This publication was succeeded by the "Guardian," a similar work, in which Addison also bore a considerable share. In 1713, his famous tragedy of Cato was brought upon the stage, and performed without interruption for thirty-five nights. In 1716, Addison married the countess dowager of Warwick; but the union is said to have been far from felicitous. The following year, he became secretary of state, which place he soon resigned, on a pension of fifteen hundred pounds a year. In his retirement he wrote "A Defence of the Christian Religion," and also laid the plan of an English dictionary, upon the model of the Italian Della Crusca. He closed his life in a manner suitable to his character. When given over by his physicians, Addison sent for his step-son, the young earl of Warwick, whom he was anxious to reclaim from irregular habits and erroneous opinions, and grasping his hand, exclaimed impressively, "See in what peace a Christian can die!" but whether this affecting interview had any effect upon the young earl is not known, as his own death happened shortly after. Addison died at Holland house, June 17, 1719; leaving an only daughter, who died, unmarried, in 1797. Of Addison's numerous and well-known writings, it may be affirmed, that they rest on the solid basis of real excellence, in moral tendency as well as in literary merit; vice and folly are satirized, virtue and decorum are rendered attractive; and while polished diction and Attic wit abound, the purest ethics are inculcated. May we not then repeat the laudatory and emphatic words of Dr. Johnson: "Whoever would attain an English style, familiar but not coarse, and elegant but not ostentatious, must give his days and nights to the volumes of Addison."

PETER THE GREAT.

PETER ALEXIOWITZ I., surnamed the Great, son of Alexis Michaelowitz, czar of Muscovy, was born in the year 1672. He succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother Theodore, to the exclusion of his elder brother Iwan, whose health and intellect were too feeble to support the cares and fatigues of government. This gave offence to the princess Sophia, his half-sister, who roused into rebellion the Strelitzes, a formidable body of militia, nearly resembling the janissaries of the Ottoman Porte; but Peter was too wise to foment a civil war, and he consented to share the throne with his brother Iwan. Without education, yet endowed with the strongest powers of nature, Peter felt that much was still to be acquired before he could realize the vast projects which he had formed in his mind. To counteract the formidable power of the Strelitzes, who were not only devoted to the interest of the intriguing Sophia, but more inclined to dispute than to obey the commands of their superiors, he determined to become the favorite of the army, and enlisting as a private soldier in the company which were dressed and disciplined in the German manner, he gradually rose to command by his services, and by sharing the toils and the privations of the military life. The sight of some Dutch and English ships roused his attention to naval affairs, and while he meditated the aggrandizement of Russia, he never abandoned his favorite scheme of erecting a navy. By the death of his brother, in 1696, he became sole emperor, and then increased his dominions by the conquest of Azoph from the Turks. Still, however, feeling his inferiority as a naval power, he sent in 1698, an embassy to Holland and went in a disguised character in the ambassador's suite; and that

he might personally be acquainted with the process of ship-building, he enrolled himself at Amsterdam among the ship-carpenters, and worked with unusual assiduity, under the name of Master Peter. The next year he passed over to England, where in four months he acquired the complete knowledge of ship-building, and after receiving every mark of respect from William III., he left the country, accompanied by several English ship-builders and artificers, whom he employed with great liberality and kindness in his naval yards. From England, he went to Vienna; but the intelligence that Sophia had again intrigued with the Strelitzes, and roused them to rebellion, hastened his return to Moscow. The ringleaders were punished with severity; but the princess, who was the most guilty, was only confined with greater severity in the solitude of a monastery. Improved by the view of foreign countries, the forms of their government, and the knowledge of their commercial resources, Peter now displayed to the world the enlightened plans of his capacious mind. He not only sent his nobles to foreign countries, to improve and adorn their minds, but he liberally invited the wisest and the most learned among distant nations, to come and seek an honorable residence in Russia, and to instruct his uncivilized subjects in the various arts which humanize and sweeten life. The hitherto barbarous coasts of Russia, were therefore visited by sailors, artists, mechanics, mathematicians, and adventurers of every degree and profession, and though his subjects viewed these new settlers with jealousy, the policy of Peter soon mingled and united them by the strong ties of mutual dependence and social union. In 1700, he declared war against Charles XII., of Sweden, and though frequently defeated by the superior tactics and heroic valor of his enemy, he nevertheless persevered with undaunted courage, observing, "Though I know I must be overcome for a great while, my armies will at last be taught to conquer." In the midst of his disasters in Poland, he formed the vast project of erecting a new metropolis on the Baltic sea, for his immense territories; and after he had added to his dominions the best part of Livonia and Ingria, he in 1703, laid the foundations of Petersburg, which he destined for the northern capital of his empire. Though often defeated, at last the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, came to crown his earnest wishes, and he saw the long-victorious Swedes conquered, and their heroic leader, Charles, obliged to fly for safety into the Turkish dominions. Peter used this great victory like a wise man; the Swedish prisoners were induced, by liberal offers, to settle among their conquerors, and not less than three thousand officers were prevailed upon, by the kind treatment of the czar, to fix their residence and spread civilization, improvement, and the arts of polished life, in various parts of his extensive empire. In consequence of the victory of Pultowa, Peter was enabled to secure the possession of Livonia and Ingria, to which he afterward added part of Pomerania and Finland; but the intrigues of Charles XII., at the Turkish court, at last prevailed upon the Ottomans to break the truce, and in 1712, Peter was suddenly surrounded on the banks of the Pruth, and his army devoted to destruction. While he considered everything lost, his wife, Catherine, had recourse to stratagem, and by offering a large bribe to the grand vizier, she saved her husband's honor, and his army, and in consequence of this meritorious action, the grateful czar established the order of St. Catherine, into which women only are admitted. The defeat of the Swedish fleet near Holstein, in 1714, and the subsequent treaty of peace with Charles XII., now enabled Peter to visit again foreign countries in pursuit of improvement and better knowledge. In 1716, he was in Denmark, and after visiting the schools, public places, and curiosities, he passed to Hamburg, Hanover, Wolfenbuttle, and Holland, and the next year proceeded to Paris. In the capital of France, he was received with great ceremony, and admitted a member of the academy of sciences. Returned to Russia, Peter labored earnestly to reform and improve



Equestrian Statue of Peter the Great, at St. Petersburg.

the character of his country. After breaking gradually to pieces the dangerous establishment of the Strelitzes, he established a regular body of one hundred thousand troops; he built a navy of forty ships-of-the-line; he established colleges, and schools of medicine, botany, and belles-lettres, in the chief cities of his dominions, and by purchasing pictures of value and celebrity from Italy, he introduced a taste for painting and the fine arts among his subjects; and to supply resources for their gradual improvement, he made the largest possible collections of books and manuscripts in various languages, which were wisely distributed where they could prove most useful. In other respects he was equally attentive to the happiness and morality of his people. The laws were rendered more simple and less arbitrary, and the decisions of all lawsuits were to be announced before the expiration of eleven days; and in short, every measure which could tend to meliorate the situation of the people, to increase their knowledge, to enlarge their understanding, and to contribute to their comfort, was, with the wisest and most liberal policy, adopted and enforced. This truly great prince died 28th January, 1725, in his fifty-third year. Peter had a son, Alexis, who lived to the age of manhood; but he unfortunately engaged in a conspiracy in 1717, against his father, and was condemned to die; and though the sentence was suspended, he died some short time after, not without suspicion of being cut off privately, by the resentment of the czar, as several of his accomplices suffered the severest punishment of the law. At his death, Peter appointed for his successor his widow the czarina, Catherine, whom, from a soldier's wife he had raised, in consequence of her great merits and heroic character, to share his bed and his throne. Peter is one of the few sovereigns who have been authors. He wrote several pieces on naval affairs; and as he was a member of the Paris academy, he sent to that learned body a chart of the Caspian, which had been taken by his directions, and he always received with pleasure, the volumes of their memoirs, which were regularly transmitted to him.

The colossal equestrian statue of Peter the Great, an engraving of which is placed on the previous page, is erected at St. Petersburg, in the square opposite the Isaac bridge, at the western extremity of the admiralty. It stands on a huge block of granite, upward of three hundred tons in weight, which was conveyed from a marsh, at a distance of four miles from St. Petersburg. This monument of bronze was said to have been cast at a single jet, from a design by Falconet, a French architect. The head was modelled by Mademoiselle Calot, a female artist of great merit, and is admitted to be a strong resemblance of Peter. The height of the figure of the emperor is eleven feet; that of the horse, seventeen feet, and the weight in metal of the group nearly twenty tons



House in which Peter the Great lived while in Holland.

CHARLES XII.

CHARLES XII., of Sweden, was born June 27th, 1682. From his earliest years he glowed to imitate the heroic character of Alexander; and, in his eagerness to reign, he caused himself to be declared king at the age of fifteen, and at his coronation boldly seized the crown from the hands of the archbishop of Upsal, and set it on his own head. His youth seemed to invite the attacks of his neighbors, of Poland, Denmark, and Russia: but Charles, unawed by the prospect of hostilities, and though scarce eighteen, wisely determined to assail his enemies one after the other. He besieged Copenhagen, and by his vigorous measures, so terrified the Danish monarch that, in less than six weeks, he obliged him to sue for peace. From humbled Denmark, Charles marched against the Russians; and though at the head of only eight thousand men, he attacked the enemy, who were besieging Navarre with one hundred thousand men. The conflict was dreadful, thirty thousand were slain, twenty thousand asked for quarter, and the rest were taken or destroyed; while the Swedes had only twelve hundred killed, and eight hundred wounded. From Navarre, the victorious monarch advanced into Poland, defeated the Saxons who opposed his march, and obliged the Polish king, in suing for peace, to renounce his crown, and to acknowledge Stanislaus for his successor.

Had Charles been now reconciled to the Russians, he might have become a great monarch, as he was a successful warrior, but the hope of future triumphs flattered his ambition, and as if determined to dethrone the czar, he advanced into Ukraine, while his enemies fled on every side before him. The battle of Pultowa, July 27, 1709, however, proved unfortunate. Charles, defeated and wounded, fled from the field, and sought protection at Bender from the Turks. His affairs were now desperate, the banished Augustus was restored to the Polish throne, and the grand seignor tired of his guest, wished him to remove from his dominions. Charles with only forty domestics opposed for some days a Turkish army, and when obliged to submit, he sullenly feigned sickness, and during ten months he lay in bed. At last he left his confinement with only two faithful attendants, and travelling post reached in eleven days Stralsund, from which he crossed to Sweden. Untamed by misfortunes, he immediately invaded Norway, with an army of twenty thousand men, but at the siege of Frederickshall, while visiting the works, he was struck by a cannon-ball, and expired on the spot, 12th December, 1718. It has been suspected by some, and not without reason, that he fell by the hand of a Swedish assassin, and not by the ball of an honorable enemy, in the ordinary chances of war.

Charles, in his imitation of Alexander, converted his firmness into obstinacy, his courage was rashness, and his severity was cruelty. He possessed nothing of the great qualities or the amiable virtues of the hero, though he was bold even to madness, and persevering even to his ruin. At the battle of Narva, when five of his horses were shot, he exclaimed as he mounted a fresh charger, "These people find me exercise." When one day dictating to his secretary at Stralsund, a bomb fell on the roof of the house, and crushed the room next the place where they were sitting. But while the secretary dropped his pen, all terrified, the monarch asked calmly what was the matter: "The bomb!" replies the secretary. "The bomb!" cries the monarch, "what has the bomb to do with what I am dictating; write on." But with all the faults of Charles, there are circumstances which authorize a belief that, had he lived, he would have reformed his errors, and, perhaps, ultimately have contributed as much to the happiness of Sweden, as he had already to its glory.



GEORGE FREDERICK HANDEL.

THIS great musical composer was born at Halle, in Lower Saxony, on the 24th, or, according to the inscription on his monument, on the 23d of February, 1684. His father was a physician, and was desirous of educating his son for the law; but from his earliest years the boy showed a passion for music, which nothing could overcome. Forbidden to touch a musical instrument, he would spend the greater part of the night, after the rest of the family were asleep, in practising upon a small clavichord, he kept concealed in a garret; and in this way he attained such proficiency, that having, while yet a mere child, contrived to steal an opportunity of playing on the church organ, before the court at Saxe Weisenfels, he surprised and charmed all who heard him, with the excellence of his performance. On this his father, prevailed upon by the request of the duke, consented to allow him to adopt the profession for which he seemed destined by nature. He was then placed under the care of a master, and profited so greatly by the regular instruction which he now received, that he was soon able to preside as leader of the choral services in the cathedral. When he first used, occasionally, to undertake this duty, he was no more than nine years of age. He had also already begun to exercise his genius and theoretical knowledge as a composer with striking success. When in his nineteenth year, he repaired to Hamburgh, and there obtained an engagement in the orchestra of the opera. On the 30th of December, 1704, he brought out at that theatre, his "Almira," his first opera, and in the February following, his "Nero." These works, and his other professional exertions, at length brought him a sufficient sum of money to enable him to gratify his desire of making a journey to Italy. From that country, after having visited in succession Florence, Venice, Naples,

and Rome, he returned to Germany, in 1710, and soon after, on the invitation of several persons of distinction, went to England. The reception which he met with induced him to make that country his residence for the rest of his life. Queen Anne granted him a pension of £200; and that sum was augmented when George I. came to the throne. His first great patron was the earl of Burlington, with whom he resided from 1715 till 1718, when he accepted from the duke of Chandos the appointment of director of the choir which that gentleman had established at his seat at Cannons. In 1720 the Royal Academy of Music was instituted, and Handel placed at its head. His own compositions were the pieces principally performed; but a violent quarrel with some of the other musicians broke up the institution, after it had subsisted only for ten years—a period which had been characterized as the most splendid era of music in England. The next great event in Handel's life was the production of his master-effort, the oratorio of the Messiah, which he brought out in 1741. This magnificent composition was somewhat coldly received on its first representation, but it soon came to be more correctly appreciated; and it has long ranked in the estimation of all competent judges as one of the most sublime works in the whole range of music. It deserves to be mentioned as an instance of Handel's liberality, that on the opening of the Foundling hospital, he not only presented an organ to the chapel, but gave the institution the benefit of a performance of his "Messiah," conducted by himself, and repeated the same kindness for several years. He also bequeathed the music of this oratorio to the hospital at his death. That event took place on the 14th of April, 1759, when the illustrious musician was in the seventy-sixth year of his age. He had been for some time before wholly blind; and it was an affecting circumstance to see him led to the organ, and hear him perform his own pathetic composition of "Total Eclipse, without all hope of day," from the Samson Agonistes of that immortal bard who may be considered the Handel of poets.

EMANUEL SWEDENBORG.

EMANUEL SWEDENBORG was born in Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, January 29, 1688. He received his education principally at the university of Upsala, where he made rapid progress in the various branches taught at that period. His memory was retentive, his perceptions quick, and his judgment clear. His early impressions were decidedly religious. Referring to this period, he afterward says: "From my youth to my tenth year, my thoughts were constantly engrossed by reflecting on God, on salvation, and on the spiritual passions of man. I often revealed things in my discourse which filled my parents with astonishment, and made them declare at times, that certainly the angels spoke through my mouth." Interspersed through his manuscripts are frequently seen the following rules, which he doubtless wished to preserve uppermost in his mind: 1. Often to read and meditate upon the Word of God. 2. To submit everything to the will of Divine providence. 3. To preserve in everything a propriety of behavior, and always to keep the conscience clear. 4. To discharge with fidelity the functions of his employments and the duties of his office, and to render himself in all things useful to society.

In 1716, Swedenborg was appointed by Charles XII. assessor extraordinary of the board of mines, which office he retained until 1743. During the former part of this period he travelled much. His society was sought by the learned in his own and other countries. The philosophical works published by him during the above period are numerous, and they successively indicate a gradual



Emanuel Swedenborg.

preparation of mind for the performance of higher duties, which are intimately blended with the new dispensation under which we now live. He insists that none but a good man can be a true philosopher. Too great an accumulation of facts and of experiments was deemed unnecessary; the truths of genuine wisdom being ever near, and pressing for admission into the mind of man. Little is required of the recipient but to discipline the mind, control the passions, bring into due subjection worldly and selfish affections, and thus become the image and likeness of God. Man, when originally created in this image and likeness, possessed intuitively the elements of true wisdom and philosophy. In his philosophical researches, he ever had in view the human form. Although not himself an experimental anatomist, yet, availing himself of the experimental phenomena furnished by others, he arrived at the conclusion that the mind and body mutually corresponded with each other—that the mind itself was in the human form, and fitted and pervaded every part of the body; and thence, on the dissolution of the latter, man continued a living being, in perfect human form, unless deformed by sin, with all his faculties, sensations, &c., nothing diminished, but greatly exalted.

Although the science of anatomy furnished him with means to investigate the province of the soul, yet, from the position thus gained, he was enabled to penetrate more deeply than others the mysterious organization of the body itself. And it is a singular fact that in the “*Regnum Animale*” and other works, he has incidentally, as it were, presented to the world facts in the organization of the body which anatomists of a later period, more slow in their discovery, have claimed the honor of having first brought to light. Cases of this kind are numerous, and have already been presented to the public.

The same, it is believed, is true of his other philosophical works. Instances are not unfrequently manifest where he has anticipated the discoveries claimed by modern philosophers. A treatise on the magnetic needle having been put into the hands of R. M. Patterson, late professor in the University of Pennsylvania, elicited from him the following remarks: "This much I can truly say, that the air of mysticism, which is generally supposed to pervade Baron Swedenborg's ethical and theological writings, has prevented philosophers from paying that attention to his physical productions of which I now see that they are worthy. Many of the experiments and observations on magnetism, presented in this work, are believed to be of much more modern date, and are unjustly ascribed to much more recent writers."

In 1743, at the age of fifty-four, Swedenborg relinquished his philosophical pursuits, and devoted himself entirely to unfolding the doctrines of the New Jerusalem. In relation to this period, he thus afterward writes to Dr. Hartley: "I have been called to a holy office by the Lord himself, who most graciously manifested himself in person to me, his servant, in the year 1743; when he opened my sight to the view of the spiritual world, and granted me the privilege of conversing with spirits and angels. . . . From that time I began to print and publish various *arcana* that have been seen by me, or revealed to me; as respecting heaven and hell, the state of man after death, the true worship of God, the spiritual sense of the Word; with many other more important matters conducive to salvation and true wisdom."

Both his philosophical and theological works were written in Latin. While engaged in the latter, he resided occasionally in London, but his time was spent mostly in Stockholm; where he led a retired life, ever cheerful, and pleased to receive the visits of those who called on him. He occasionally attended court, and was on terms of intimacy with the royal family. He gave frequent evidence of intercourse with the departed, by relating to surviving friends facts which at the time left no room to doubt; among which may be mentioned the remarkable instance of the queen, who inquired of him concerning the state of a deceased relative. On one occasion, while passing from London to Stockholm, he communicated to his fellow-travellers the intelligence that a great fire was then raging in the latter city; and calmed the fears of those who were anxious for the safety of their friends and property, by assuring them shortly afterward that the conflagration had been subdued. When they reached Göttingen, in Germany, they learned to their amazement that Swedenborg's prediction was literally fulfilled.

He was held in great respect, and not long after his death, a society was formed in Stockholm of those who embraced his sentiments, which included very many eminent men and some of the royal family. But the established (Lutheran) religion of Sweden prevents a free and open manifestation of the new doctrines by those who receive them. The clergy of that country, however (and they are now numerous who favor the cause of the "New Church"), preach the doctrines as far as they find it prudent so to do; and of late years the new faith has made considerable progress in both England and America, comprising among its followers some of the most gifted intellects and ripest scholars of the age.

On the death of Swedenborg, which took place in London, in 1772, at the age of eighty-four, a eulogy was pronounced in honor of his memory in the house of nobles of Sweden, by S. Sandal, in the name of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Stockholm. His theological works, as translated into English, equal about twenty-seven volumes octavo, of from four hundred to five hundred pages each. He was simple and unaffected in his manners, and very abstemious in his diet, in the latter years of his life (while in a trance or state of spiritual ecstasy) passing whole days together with no nourishment but coffee



ALEXANDER POPE.

ALEXANDER POPE, an illustrious English poet, was born June 8th, 1688, in London, where his father was a hatter. He was sent to a catholic school near Winchester, and then removed to a seminary near Hyde-park corner. At the age of twelve, he went to live with his parents at Binfield, in Windsor forest, and first discovered his taste for poetry by reading Ogilby's Virgil, and Sandy's Ovid; but the writings of Spencer, Waller, and Dryden, now became his favorite employment. He early began to try his strength in poetry, and it is said, that at the age of ten, he converted some of the stories of Homer into a play, which his schoolfellows acted, with the assistance of his master's gardener, who undertook the part of Ajax. His first regular composition was his Ode on Solitude; but his pastorals, begun in 1704, introduced him soon as a promising bard to the wits of the age, especially Wycherley and Walsh, who applauded the labors of the youth, and strongly recommended him to study correctness. In 1704, he also wrote his first part of Windsor Forest, which was completed not till six years after, and inscribed to Lord Lansdown. The Essay on Criticism appeared in 1708, and in this incomparable performance, though not yet twenty years old, he evinced all the taste, the genius, and judgment of the most mature reflection, and the most consummate knowledge of human nature. The fame of the essay was soon surpassed by the Rape of the Lock, which was published in 1712. The poet chose for his subject, the sportive conduct of Lord Petre in cutting off a lock of Mrs. Fermor's hair; and he had the happiness, by the elegant and delicate effusions of his muse, and the creative powers of his imagination, to effect a reconciliation between the offended parties. The Temple of Fame next engaged the public attention, and in 1713, he published proposals for a translation of Homer's Iliad by subscription. This was generously supported by the public, and the poet received from his subscribers six thousand pounds, besides twelve hundred pounds which the bookseller Lintot gave him for the copy. In 1717, he published a collection of his poems; but in his edition of Shakspeare, which appeared in 1721, he proved to the world that he had consulted his private emolument more than his fame. The success with which the Iliad had been received, encouraged him to attempt the Odyssey, with the assistance of Broome and Fenton, whose labors he rewarded with five hundred pounds, and he received the same honorable subscription as before, but only six hundred pounds from the bookseller. In 1725, he joined Swift and Arbuthnot in writing some miscellanies, and in 1727, he published

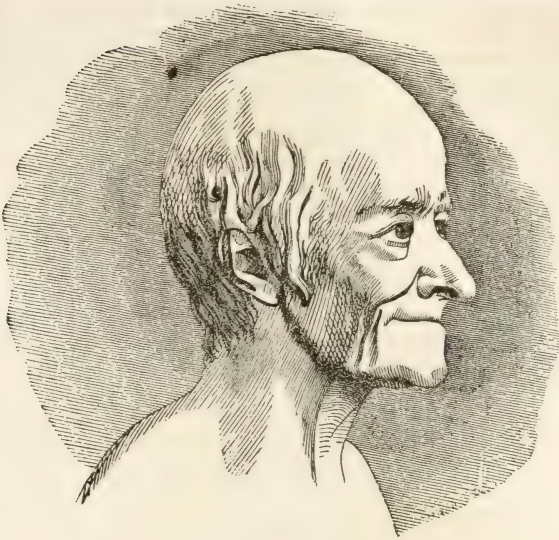
his *Dunciad*, with notes by Swift, under the name of Scriblerus. This singular poem owed its origin to the severe and illiberal remarks to which the poet had been exposed, from the inferior scribblers of the day, and after long exhibiting patience, he revenged the attack by the keenest of satires. As a composition, the *Dunciad* is a work of great merit; and Cibber himself, the hero of the piece, bears the most manly testimony to the talents of his persecutor, by declaring that nothing was ever more perfect and finished in its kind, than this poem. The principles, however, of the poet, must be condemned; if it was justice to retort abuse on those who had offended him, it was the most illiberal and profligate conduct to hang up to immortal ignominy, the characters of men of genius, talents, and respectability, who instead of censuring him, had been loud in his praise. Lord Bolingbroke, in 1729, entreated him to turn his thoughts to moral subjects, and this produced his *Essay on Man*, a work of acknowledged merit, containing a system of ethics in the Horatian way. A collection of his letters appeared in 1737, and the following year, a translation of his *Essay on Man* was published in France, by Resnel, and at the same time, a severe animadversion on it by Cronsaz, a German professor, who declared it nothing but a system of materialism. This publication was answered by Warburton, and appeared as a commentary on the republication of the poem, in 1740. In 1742, the poet gave to the world a fourth book of his *Dunciad*, and prepared a more perfect and comprehensive edition of his works; but death stopped his hand. He expired 30th May, 1744, aged fifty-six.

A very interesting essay on Pope's writings and genius appeared in 1756, and in 1782, by Dr. Warton. Though a catholic in religion, it is generally supposed that Pope was little more than a deist, as his *Essay on Man* fully justifies, yet in the latter part of his life, he attended the services of the English church. In his person he was little, and somewhat crooked; but the powers of the mind compensated for all the defects of the body. He was capricious in his friendships; and though he was courted by men of rank and fashion, by Lords Harcourt, Bolingbroke, and others, distinguished for opulence, as well as celebrity and wit, yet he never forgot the homage which should be paid to the man of poetical eminence, and of acknowledged literary fame.

VOLTAIRE.

FRANCIS MARIE AROUET DE VOLTAIRE, the most celebrated literary character of his age, was born at Chatenay, near Paris, in 1694, and received his education at the Jesuit's college of Louis XIV. Here he displayed talents which warranted the highest expectations; and having recited from memory a poem of Rousseau, before the celebrated Ninon de l'Enclos, she was so pleased with the talent of the boy, that she left him a legacy of two thousand livres to purchase a library. His father intended him for the law, but he declined to follow the profession, and assiduously cultivated his taste for literary pursuits.

In 1716, he was imprisoned in the Bastille, on an unfounded suspicion of having written a libel on the government; and, while there, he formed the plan of the "*Henriade*," and completed the tragedy of "*Œdipus*," which was represented in 1718 with singular success. A second unjust confinement in the Bastille induced him to take up his residence in England for three years, where he was favorably received, and obtained a most liberal subscription for his "*Henriade*." On his return to France in 1730, he published his "*Brutus*," which was followed by "*Zara*," the most affecting of his tragedies. His next



Voltaire.

work, the "Lettres Philosophiques," gave such offence by its profaneness, that the parliament of Paris condemned the book to be burnt, and warrants were issued for apprehending the author. He therefore passed some years in concealment at Cirey, near Vassi, in Champagne, where he was treated with the greatest kindness by the mistress of the estate, the marchioness du Chatelet, and wrote his "Elémens de la Philosophie de Newton," to make his countrymen acquainted with the great discoveries of the English philosopher. He also produced the plays of "Alzira" and "Mohammed," which last was censured as immoral and irreligious; but his "Merope," brought out in 1743, was received with such applause, that the poet became a favorite at court, and was appointed gentleman of the bedchamber and historiographer of France. In 1746, he obtained admission into the Academy of Sciences, on which occasion he broke through the old custom of panegyriizing Cardinal Richelieu; but this innovation created him so many enemies, that he retired to Luneville, and did not return to Paris till 1749.

The year following, Voltaire went to Berlin, at the invitation of the king of Prussia, Frederick the Great, who made him one of his chamberlains, and gave him a pension. The greatest intimacy for a time subsisted between them; but he at length drew upon himself Frederick's displeasure, and quitted Prussia, carrying with him the poetical works of the king, who caused him to be arrested on the road, till the fugitive manuscript was restored.

Voltaire then went to Colmar, whence he removed to Geneva, and afterward settled at Ferney, a village in the Pays de Gex, where he resided during the remainder of his life, with his niece, Madame Denis. He also induced many ingenious artisans to settle there, whose works he sent to Russia, Germany, Spain, Italy, and Holland. At the beginning of the year 1778, he went to Paris, where he was received with many flattering marks of distinction; but his incessant literary labors, and the change from his accustomed manner of life, affected his health so much, that he observed, "I have come to Paris to find my glory and my grave." Having taken a large dose of opium, without the

advice of his physician, it is thought to have hastened his death, which took place May 30, 1778.

Besides his poetical works, Voltaire wrote an "Essay on General History," the "Age of Louis XIV.," "Life of Charles XII. of Sweden," "History of the Czar Peter the Great," the romances of "Candide," "Zadig," and some others. His collected works form seventy volumes octavo! He had stupendous talents, but there were many parts of his character by no means great or estimable.

WILLIAM HOGARTH.

WILLIAM HOGARTH, one of the most original of painters, was born in the city of London, November 10, 1697. From his childhood he was fond of drawing. His exercises when at school were more remarkable for the ornaments which adorned them than for any exhibition of proficiency in the exercises themselves. His father, an enthusiastic and laborious scholar, who, like many of his craft, owed little to the favor of fortune, consulted these indications of talent as well as his means would allow, and bound his son apprentice to a silver-plate engraver. But Hogarth aspired after something higher than drawing ciphers and coats-of-arms; and before the expiration of his indentures he had made himself a good draughtsman, and obtained considerable knowledge of coloring. It was his ambition to become distinguished as an artist; and not content with being the mere copier of other men's productions, he sought to combine the functions of the painter with those of the engraver, and to gain the power of delineating his own ideas, and the fruits of his acute observation. He has himself explained the nature of his views, in a passage which is worthy of attention:—

"Many reasons led me to wish that I could find the shorter path—fix forms and characters in my mind—and instead of copying the lines try to read the language, and, if possible, find the grammar of the art, by bringing into one focus the various observations I had made, and then trying by my power on the canvass, how far my plan enabled me to combine and apply them to practice. For this purpose I considered what various ways, and to what different purposes, the memory might be applied; and fell upon one most suitable to my situation and idle disposition; laying it down first as an axiom, that he who could by any means acquire and retain in his memory perfect ideas of the subjects he meant to draw, would have as clear a knowledge of the figure as a man who can write freely hath of the twenty-five letters of the alphabet, and their infinite combinations." Acting on these principles, he improved by constant exercise his natural powers of observation and recollection. In his rambles among the motley scenes of London he was ever on the watch for striking features or incidents; and, not trusting entirely to memory, he was accustomed when any face struck him as peculiarly grotesque or expressive, to sketch it on his thumb-nail, to be treasured up on paper on his return home.

For some time after the expiration of his apprenticeship, Hogarth continued to practise the trade to which he was bred—engraving shop-bills, coats-of-arms, figures upon tankards, &c. Soon he procured employment in furnishing frontispieces and designs for the booksellers. The most remarkable of these are the plates to an edition of *Hudibras*, published in 1726. About 1728 he began to seek employment as a portrait-painter. Most of his performances were small family pictures, containing several figures, which he calls "Conversation Pieces," from twelve to fifteen inches high. These for a time were very pop-



Portrait of Hogarth—from a Painting by Himself.

war, and his practice was considerable, as his price was low. His life-size portraits are few.

In 1729 Hogarth contracted a stolen marriage with the only daughter of the once fashionable painter, Sir James Thornhill. The father, for some time implacable, relented at last; and the reconciliation, it is said, was much forwarded by his admiration of the "Harlot's Progress," a series of six prints, commenced in 1731, and published in 1734. The novelty, as well as merit of this series of prints, won for them extraordinary popularity; and their success encouraged Hogarth to undertake a similar history of the "Rake's Progress," in eight prints, which appeared in 1735. The third, and perhaps the most popular of these pictorial novels, "Marriage-à-la-Mode," was not engraved till 1745.

The merits of these prints were sufficiently intelligible to the public; their originality and boldness of design, and the force and freedom of their execution, won for them an extensive popularity, and a rapid and continued sale. The Harlot's Progress was the most successful, from its novelty, rather than from its superior excellence. Twelve hundred subscribers' names were entered for it; it was dramatized in several forms; and we may note, in illustration of the difference of past and present manners, that fan-mounts were engraved, containing miniature copies of the six plates. The merits of the pictures were less obvious to the few who could afford to spend large sums on works of art; and Hogarth, too proud to let them go for prices much below the value which he put upon them, waited for a long time, and waited in vain, for a purchaser. At last, he determined to commit them to public sale; but instead of the common method of auction, he devised a new and complex plan, with the intention of excluding picture-dealers, and obliging men of rank and wealth who wished to purchase, to judge and bid for themselves. The scheme failed, as might have been expected. Nineteen of Hogarth's principal pictures produced only £427 7s., not averaging £22 10s. each. The Harlot's Progress was purchased by Mr. Beckford, at the rate of fourteen guineas a picture; five of the series perished in the fire at Fonthill. The Rake's Progress averaged twenty-two guineas a picture; it passed into the possession of Sir John Soane, at the advanced price of five hundred and seventy guineas. The same eminent architect became the proprietor of the four pictures of an Election, for the sum of £1,732. Marriage-à-la-mode was disposed of in a similar way, in 1750; and on the day of sale one bidder appeared, who became master of the six pictures, together with their frames, for £115 10s. Mr. Angerstein purchased them, in 1797, for £1,381, and they now form a striking feature in the British National Gallery.

The satire of Hogarth was not often of a personal nature; but he knew his own power, and he sometimes exercised it. Two of his prints, "The Times," produced a memorable quarrel between himself, on one side, and Wilkes and Churchill on the other. The satire of the prints of *The Times*, which were published in 1762, was directed, not against Wilkes himself, but his political friends, Pitt and Temple; nor is it so biting as to have required Wilkes, in defence of his party, to retaliate upon one with whom he had lived in familiar and friendly intercourse. He did so, however, in a number of the *North Briton*, containing not only abuse of the artist, but unjust and injurious mention of his wife. Hogarth was deeply wounded by this attack: he retorted by the well-known portrait of Wilkes with the cap of liberty, and he afterward represented Churchill as a bear. The quarrel was unworthy the talents of either the painter or poet. It is the more to be regretted, because its effects, as he himself intimates, were injurious to Hogarth's declining health. The summer of 1764 he spent at Chiswick, and the free air and exercise worked a partial renovation of his strength. The amendment, however, was but temporary; and he died suddenly on the 26th of October following, the day after his return to his London residence in Leicester-square.

Hogarth has left a memoir of his own life, from which we have quoted which contains some curious, interesting, and instructive matter concerning his own modes and motives of thought and action. He wrote verses occasionally, in a rough and familiar style, but not without some sparkles of his humorous turn. But his most remarkable performance is the "Analysis of Beauty," composed with the view of fixing the principles of taste, and laying down unerring directions for the student of art. Its leading principle is, that the serpentine line is the foundation of all that is beautiful, whether in nature or art. The work unquestionably contains much that is original and valuable.



JAMES THOMSON.

THIS poet, the author of "The Seasons," was one of nine children of Rev Thomas Thomson, minister of Ednam, a country parish near Kelso, in Scotland, where he was born, September 11, 1700. Even while at school at the neighboring town of Jedburgh, he showed his poetic tendency by the composition of verses, which attracted considerable attention among his companions and the acquaintances of his family. He then proceeded to the University of Edinburgh, without, as it would appear, having formed any steady purpose as to a profession, and at first devoted himself principally to the study of general literature; but having lost his father during his second year's attendance, he consented, on the persuasion of his friends, to enter upon a course of preparation for the church. His study of theology, however, was probably little more than formal—and after some time an incident occurred which finally determined him to abandon it altogether. This was the reception which one of his

written exercises met with from the professor, who, while he warmly eulogized the genius which it displayed, expressed his apprehension that it would be necessary for the author to adopt a very different style in his addresses from the pulpit if he wished to be intelligible to an ordinary audience. There was much more in this reproof, if so it might be called, to gratify than to dishearten the young theologian. If his ideas and language were too imaginative for a sermon, he considered that they might possibly be all the better adapted for a poem. He wrote his "Winter," and bidding adieu to college and his clerical prospects, put himself on board a London smack, with his work in his pocket, determined to try his fortune on a new scene.

This was in the year 1725. Arrived in the metropolis, Thomson found out his friend Mallet, whom he had known at Edinburgh, and who had already acquired some reputation by his poetical productions. Mallet introduced him to Millar the bookseller, who purchased from him his poem of "Winter" for a small sum, and published it. It appeared in March, 1726, and for a few weeks attracted little notice. But having at last had the good fortune to fall in the way of a gentleman who possessed both a taste for poetry and an extensive acquaintance in the fashionable world, its merits were soon made widely known by his warm commendations, and the author was amply consoled for the temporary neglect which he had suffered, by the general admiration and applause which were now showered upon him.

The brilliant success of this first effort introduced Thomson to many of the most distinguished and influential personages of the day, both literary and political, and brought him at once the praises of Pope and the patronage of the Lord Chancellor Talbot. Next year he published his "Summer," and also his "Britannia" and his "Verses to the Memory of Sir Isaac Newton;" the year following, his "Spring," and finally, in 1730, "The Seasons," completed by the addition of the "Autumn," and the eloquent and noble hymn which closes the work. In 1729, likewise had appeared his tragedy of "Sophonisba," which was not, however, received with much approbation either on the stage or when it was given to the world in a printed form.

Thomson now spent some years in visiting the principal places of the continent in the quality of companion to the Honorable Mr. Talbot, the eldest son of the chancellor. Soon after his return he published his long and elaborate poem, entitled "Liberty," which he himself is said to have considered the best of his productions, but which has never become a favorite with the public. Meanwhile, the sinecure place of secretary of briefs, bestowed upon him by the chancellor, supplied him with a respectable income; but the sudden death of Lord Talbot in 1737 deprived him of this situation, although it is understood that Lord Hardwicke, who had succeeded to the seals, was disposed to have reappointed him had he been asked. In these circumstances, Frederick prince of Wales, to whom he had been made known by his friend Lord Lyttleton, granted him a pension of one hundred pounds a year, and on this and the profits of his works he subsisted till seven or eight years afterward, when the place of surveyor-general of the Leeward islands was obtained for him, which yielded him an income of about three hundred pounds after paying his deputy. The only works which he produced for some years were several dramatic pieces, all now nearly forgotten, except perhaps his tragedy of "Tancred and Sigismunda," which experienced a better reception than the others at first, and has been occasionally revived since. But in 1746 appeared his admirable "Castle of Indolence," perhaps the most poetical of all his productions. It was also the last effort of his muse. About two years after, he caught a cold on returning one night by water from London to his residence in Kew lane; and a fever having come on, he died on the 27th of August, 1748.

Thomson's remains lie interred in Richmond churchyard; but a monument

was erected to his memory some years after his death in Westminster abbey. The house in which he resided at Richmond has also been carefully preserved, having been some years ago repaired at a great expense. It was in the garden attached to this abode, called Rossdale house, that, according to tradition, the indolent poet would sometimes be seen eating the peaches from the wall with his hands in his pockets! This anecdote may serve as a sample of the general character of the man, which, however, although somewhat luxurious, was also very benevolent, and full of kind and amiable feeling. He was greatly beloved for his simplicity and genuine excellence of heart by all to whom he was known. As a poet, Thomson occupies a very high place, both for originality and for force and beauty of imagination. Perhaps no other descriptions call up so powerfully as his the very effect produced by real nature when viewed through the illusion of poetic excitement. His versification, too, although not possessing much variety, nor attuned upon any very refined musical principle, has usually a power and fullness forcibly expressive of the earnestness of the poet's convictions, and sometimes a sustained grandeur admirably harmonizing with the lofty aspirations and far-extending visions of which his song is composed.

NADIR SHAH.

NADIR SHAH was a sovereign of Persia, and one of the most warlike of the eastern princes. He was the son of a shepherd, and was born in the year 1688, at a village near Meshed, in the province of Chorassan. He experienced many vicissitudes in his youth. Restless and daring, by selling a portion of his father's flock, he hired a banditti, with whom he scoured the country. In 1726, he engaged in the service of Thamas, son of Hussun, the sophi of Persia, who had been deposed by an Afghan. Under this prince Nadir greatly distinguished himself, and at last grew strong enough to attack the Afghan usurper, and overthrow him. He now put out the eyes of the unfortunate Thamas, and caused himself to be proclaimed king of Persia, in 1736, under the title of Nadir Shah. He next went to war with the Afghans for the recovery of Candahar. This city had formerly belonged to Persia, but was then in possession of the Ghilzies, the most powerful of the Afghan tribes, who inhabited the country around Candahar, which they had formed into an independent state in the year 1708, when they revolted from the Persian government. The occupation of the Ghilzie country, which he reduced to subjection, brought Nadir Shah to the frontiers of the Mogul empire; yet it was not until after he had taken Cabul, and was actually advancing toward Delhi, that the emperor and the people of that devoted city, aroused themselves to a sense of danger. Mohammed Shah then hastily assembled his forces, and met the invader about one hundred miles from Delhi, where he sustained a total defeat, and was obliged to repair in person to the Persian camp, to make submission to the conqueror; a sad humiliation for a successor of the great Akber.

The two monarchs rode side by side to the capital, where Nadir, assuming the right of conquest, distributed his troops in various parts of the city, to the infinite disgust of the inhabitants, who bore the intrusion and exactions of the enemy with gloomy discontent, until a report was raised that Nadir Shah had died suddenly, when the suppressed fury of the populace burst forth, and great numbers of the Persians were put to the sword. In the midst of the tumult, Nadir rode forth from the palace-gates, expecting that his presence would overawe the people, and put a stop to their violence; instead of which, their



Portrait of Nadir Shah.—From a Miniature painted in India.

disappointment at seeing him alive, only added to their rage; and the *Shah* then gave the fearful command, which devoted to ruin that magnificent city which had so long been the pride of the eastern world.

When the order had been issued for a general massacre of the unfortunate inhabitants of Delhi, Nadir Shah retired to a little mosque in the grand bazar, where he sat for hours in solitude, while the work of death and destruction was going on around him. Many parts of the city were in flames, and the number of human beings sacrificed on that dreadful day, is said to have amounted to fifty thousand. At length, the wretched emperor forced his way into the presence of the destroyer, exclaiming, with tears streaming down his cheeks, "Spare my people;" and the command that was instantly given to shed no more blood, was as promptly obeyed as that which had caused it to flow in such frightful abundance.

Having thus so far depopulated the great capital of the Mogul empire, and laid it partly in ruins, the Shah proceeded to take possession of all its movable treasures. Gold and jewels, rich stuffs of every description, elephants, horses, camels, and the celebrated peacock throne of Shah Jehan, were carried off by the conquerors; and so general was the plunder that many persons suspected of having concealed their wealth, were put to the torture to make them confess where it was hidden. The amount taken, according to the authorities who make it the least, was one hundred and fifty millions of dollars; while others say nearly four hundred millions. During its collection, to add to the horrible state of the city, the gates were strictly closed, and the inhabitants whom the sword had spared, were perishing by famine. The public spirit of an actor, named Tucki, relieved the citizens from this calamity; for having exhibited a play before Nadir which greatly pleased the latter, and for which he was told to ask what he wished, and it should be done, Tucki fell on his knees before Nadir, and cried, "O king, command that the gates be opened, that the poor may not perish." The request was granted, and Tucki rewarded in the noblest manner by the blessings of his fellow-creatures. The Nadir Shah reinstated the humble monarch on his throne, and wrote to the chief princes of India, to announce his restoration. One of these letters was addressed to the Raja Saho, and another to the Peishwa Bajee Rao, desiring that they would obey all the commands of Mohammed Shah, whom he now regarded as his brother, therefore should return with his army to punish any disobedient vassals. Bajee Rao immediately sent a large present in gold to the emperor, with a letter of submission, which were acknowledged by a splendid present in return consisting of a complete dress, a pearl necklace, jewels for his turban, a horse, and an elephant. The presents made by an inferior, or vassal prince, to his superior, are received as tribute, and termed his *nazzir*.

Nadir finally quitted Delhi, on the 14th of April, after having given some good advice to the emperor, and obliged him to cede the provinces between Persia and Hindostan. Nadir returned to Persia, where he retained his position on the throne till he fell by assassination, in 1747, in the sixtieth year of his age.

It is, perhaps, not unworthy of remark, that as of the two most fearful inroads Hindostan has known, that of Timur preceded and prepared the country for the rise of the Mogul power, and the other, under Nadir Shah, followed its decline and accelerated its fall, so the motives of each were the same, plunder; both were successful from the same cause, the disorganized state of the country under its weak and worthless rulers; and lastly, the results of each were in the highest degree important, the first being the establishment of Baber and his successors; while the last opened the way for the most momentous event of Indian history—the British rule.



JOHN WESLEY.

JOHN WESLEY, the celebrated founder of methodism, was the second son of Rev. Samuel Wesley, rector of Epworth, in Lincolnshire, England, where he was born, June 17, 1703. Although his father was a man of considerable literary attainments, being known to the public as the author of various works in verse, it was to his mother, a woman of a much more zealous and active character than her husband, that Wesley was chiefly indebted for his early education, and probably also for the seeds of many of his distinguished mental habits.

After receiving a very systematic elementary tuition from his mother, John Wesley was sent to the Charterhouse, whence he removed at the usual time to Christ-church college, Oxford. Here he distinguished himself greatly by his diligence and success as a student, showing from the first, in the distribution of his time, the same punctual and persevering regard to method by means of which he mainly achieved all the greater objects of his life. The reading of some religious works, and especially of "Law's Serious Call," awakened in him a strong spirit of religious fervor; and he formed that association with a number of his college acquaintances of similar views and feelings, to which, from the punctilious regularity of the members in their devotions and general demeanor, the epithet of "methodists" was given as a name of reproach by the wags of the university. As has happened in other cases, the objects of the intended satire were much too earnest in the views they had adopted to feel or to regard any point of ridicule which it might be supposed to possess, and frankly adopted the nickname thus bestowed upon them by their opponents, as their proper designation. Among their number, besides Wesley, was the afterward equally celebrated George Whitefield.

We can not here attempt to pursue minutely the remainder of the course of Wesley's busy life, or to trace the rise of that extensive fabric of ecclesiastical policy of which he was the founder. Suffice it to say, that, having commenced his public labors as a religious teacher in the newly-formed colony of Georgia, in this country, in the year 1735, he pursued from this time a course of almost constant journeying, preaching, and writing, till within a week of his death, on the 2d of March, 1791, in the eighty-eighth year of his age. During the greater part of this long period he rarely preached less than twice, and often four or five times a day; while, besides presiding with the most minute superintendence over all the public affairs of the large and rapidly-growing community which acknowledged him as its head, and transacting a great deal of private business, he found time to send to the press a succession of works, which, in the collected edition, amount to between thirty and forty volumes! Mr. Southey, who has made the life of this extraordinary man one of the most interesting books in the language, has given us the following account of the manner in which he contrived to get through all this occupation: "Leisure and I," said Wesley, "have taken leave of one another. I propose to be busy as long as I live, if my health is so long indulged to me." This resolution was made in the prime of life, and never was resolution more punctually observed. "Lord, let me not live to be useless!" was the prayer which he uttered after seeing one whom he had long known as an active and useful magistrate, reduced by age to be "a picture of human nature in disgrace, feeble in body and mind, slow of speech and understanding."

Wesley was favored with a constitution vigorous beyond that of ordinary men, and with an activity of spirit which is even rarer than his singular felicity of health and strength. Ten thousand cares of various kinds, he said, were no more weight or burden to his mind than ten thousand hairs were to his head. His manner of life was the most favorable that could have been devised for longevity. He rose early, and lay down at night with nothing to keep him waking, or trouble him in sleep. His mind was always in a pleasurable and wholesome state of activity; he was temperate in his diet, and lived in perpetual locomotion. And frequent change of air is, perhaps, of all things, that which most conduces to joyous health and long life. The time which Mr. Wesley spent in travelling was not lost. "History, poetry, and philosophy," said he, "I commonly read on horseback, having other employment at other times." He used to throw the reins on his horse's neck, and in this way he rode, in the course of his life, above a hundred thousand miles, without any accident of sufficient magnitude to make him sensible of the danger he incurred.

CHARLES WESLEY, younger brother of John, was born in 1708, at Epworth, and from the care of his father passed to Westminster school, of which he became captain. He was elected in 1726 to Christ church, Oxford, and, after taking his degrees, embraced with warmth the religious tenets of his brother John, whom he accompanied in his mission to Georgia. After various adventures in his intercourse with the Indians, he returned to England in 1736, and became a zealous and active preacher to the people of his own persuasion. As he was well skilled in scripture divinity, and of a warm, lively character, his discourses were much admired among the methodists. Though occasionally resident in London, he was chiefly employed as an itinerant preacher among his adherents. He died in 1788, aged seventy-nine. He wrote many of the best hymns found in the Methodist Hymn-Book, of which he was mainly the original compiler. It may be said, that while John has unfolded the theological tenets of the methodists, Charles has indelibly impressed them on the hearts of the people by clothing them in sacred song. As an illustration of his quaint humor, it is related that, on a friend asking the reason why he adapted so many of his hymns to secular airs, he replied that "it was not right for the devil to have all the best tunes!"



JONATHAN EDWARDS.

JONATHAN EDWARDS was born in East Windsor, a village situated on the Connecticut river, October 5, 1703. His father, the Rev. Timothy Edwards, early imbued the minds of his children with religious truths drawn from the Holy Scriptures. When six years of age Jonathan commenced the study of Latin, under the tuition of his father, who also taught him at the same time to write and reason on various subject by committing his thoughts to paper, for the purpose of developing his intellectual faculties. As an instance of the uncommon strength and penetration of his mind, it is related that when but twelve years old, having heard an assertion that "the soul was material, and remained with the body till the resurrection," with great force of reasoning and exhibition of wit, he wrote a most ingenious and sensible argument in refutation of the proposition.

Entering Yale college in his thirteenth year, he was distinguished for his application to learning, and for the originality and strong powers of mind displayed in his collegiate course. Having graduated with the highest honors of his class in 1720, he passed the next two years in preparation for the ministry, and received a license to preach in 1722, before he was nineteen years of age. The following year he spent in New York preaching to a small congregation, who invited him to remain with them, which he declined, and in 1724 accepted an appointment as tutor in Yale college; this he resigned at the end of two years, having received a call to settle as the colleague of his grandfather, the Rev. Mr. Stoddard, in Northampton, Mass., and in February, 1727, he was installed. Mr. Edwards was married in July following to Miss Sarah Pierrepont, a young lady of great personal beauty. Her mind was of a superior

order, and she had had all the advantages of a polished education; in her manners there was a peculiar sweetness, gentleness, and amiability, which made her the delight and admiration of all who knew her. Mr. Edwards' constitution was naturally infirm, and he was very abstemious in his diet. His wife relieved him from all domestic care, conveying his simple meals to his study in a silver bowl, and every night, after the family had retired to rest, they there met to spend an hour in social intercourse and religious devotion.

In 1729 his venerable colleague and grandfather departed this life, deeply lamented by the people among whom he had labored more than half a century. Mr. Edwards visited Boston in 1731, and while there delivered a sermon, entitled "God glorified in Man's Dependence," before an association of ministers, which was published at their request. It was the first theological production he published, and it made such an impression that public thanks were offered to the Head of the church for raising up so great a teacher.

In 1735 commenced the remarkable and extensive revival of religion which has stamped that period as an era in the religious world, as well for the extent of the work as the doctrinal controversies growing out of it, and with which the name of Edwards is most intimately associated. This revival gradually declined in its power, and in 1736 Mr. Edwards wrote "A Narrative of Surprising Conversions in and about Northampton," which was published in London, under the supervision of the celebrated Dr. Watts.* Mr. Whitefield visited Northampton in 1740, and the two ministers labored together with great cordiality; a second revival began, which continued for two years, and during this period it pervaded upward of a hundred and fifty congregations, extending throughout New England and the middle states as far south as Virginia. About this time Mr. Edwards wrote his admirable "Treatise on the Religious Affections," and "Thoughts on the Revival;" these works were republished in England, and produced a decidedly happy influence. He also wrote a memoir of David Brainard, the Indian missionary, who died at his house, Oct. 9, 1749.

The church at Northampton, under the administration of Mr. Stoddard, had admitted to the communion all who chose to partake of it, on the ground that it was a converting ordinance; this lax state of discipline was contrary to Mr. Edwards' views, and he deemed it his duty to enforce a stricter examination for membership, which aroused the animosity of a portion of his congregation who became clamorous for his dismissal. During the controversy he maintained the truth of his position with great firmness and Christian spirit, and his essays on the subject written at this time are now generally acknowledged as standard authority. His opponents accomplished their purpose, and in 1750 his connection with the church was dissolved. His family, numbering at this time seven children, one having died the previous year, were now deprived of the comforts of home, and subject to many trials; but toward the close of the year he received two calls to Stockbridge which he accepted, and in 1751 he removed there and entered on the offices of minister to the church and missionary to the Indians. Here he wrote, in four and a half months, amid the cares and labors

* ISAAC WATTS, one of the most distinguished English dissenting divines, was born at Southampton, 17th July, 1674. His great abilities early displayed themselves, and he was in 1690, placed under the care of Mr. Thomas Rowe in London, where he completed his studies, and where he had among his fellow students Horte, afterward archbishop of Tuam. In 1696 he went into the family of Sir John Hartop, Stoke Newington, as tutor to his son, and in 1702, he was appointed successor to Dr. Chauncy in the pastoral office. Though his constitution was weak, and his health disordered by frequent illness, he not only paid particular attention to the duties of his office, but wrote some valuable works on subjects of divinity. In the latter part of life he became acquainted with Sir Thomas Abney, in whose family he found an asylum of friendship and hospitality, and where he died 25th November, 1748, aged seventy-four. He had been in 1728, honored in a very flattering manner, and unsolicited, by the universities of Edinburgh and Aberdeen, with the degree of doctor of divinity, and the useful publications which he sent to the press deserved the high distinction. In his character he was an amiable man, mild, generous, and charitable, and it may be said of him that few have left behind such purity of life, or such monuments of laborious piety. His works are numerous, but he is best known in this country by his "Psalms and Hymns," and his "Essay on the Improvement of the Mind."

of his double vocation, his immortal "Essay on the Freedom of the Will." "This work," says Dugald Stewart, "never was answered, and never will be answered; it raises its author to the same rank as a metaphysician with Locke and Leibnitz." In the summer of 1854, he was seized with a severe fever, from which he did not recover till January following; and his pursuits were still further interrupted by the war with the French and Indians, during which soldiers were quartered in his house. In the last three years of his residence in Stockbridge, however, he wrote some of his ablest works, among which are the "Dissertations on God Last End in the Creation of the World," and on "The Nature of True Virtue." He also finished in 1757 his "Treatise on Original Sin," which is ranked next to that on the Freedom of the Will, for clearness, force, and comprehensiveness. It was in press at the time he died.

In September, 1757, his son-in-law, the Rev. Aaron Burr, president of the college of New Jersey, died; two days after Mr. Edwards was unanimously elected to fill the vacant place. This was an unexpected call, and with great modesty he replied to the trustees, pointing out his disqualifications for the office, wherein he says, "So far as I myself am able to judge of what talents I have for benefiting my fellow-creatures by word, I think I can write better than I can speak." In doubt as to the path of duty, he submitted the question to some of his most enlightened friends, and upon their advice he left his family at Stockbridge and proceeded to Princeton, where he arrived in January, 1758. A few days after he heard of the death of his father, whose useful life had been lengthened out to nearly ninety years. Several weeks elapsed before his inauguration, but in the meantime he preached in the college-chapel, which his fame caused to be filled on every occasion to its utmost limits. The institution was formally committed to his charge on the 16th of February.

The small-pox had become very common in the country, and was then at Princeton, and rapidly spreading. As Mr. Edwards had never had it, and inoculation was then practised with great success, he proposed to be inoculated, if the physician should advise it, and the corporation give their consent. Accordingly, he was inoculated, February 13th; he had it favorably, and it was thought all danger was over; but a secondary fever set in, and by reason of a number of pustules in his throat, the necessary medicines could not be administered to check the fever. It therefore raged till it put an end to his life, on the 22d of March, 1758, in the fifty-fifth year of his age.

Thus died, in the prime of life, and in the midst of labors which, had they been completed,* would no doubt have still more highly exalted his reputation as the greatest theologian and metaphysician of America, if not of the world. Sir James Mackintosh says of him, "In power of subtle argument he was perhaps unmatched, certainly was unsurpassed among men." We might add the opinions of Dr. Chalmers, Robert Hall, and many others, to the same effect. Mr. Edwards was not an orator; yet the power of his imagination, the keenness of his wit, the overwhelming weight of his argument, the intenseness of his feeling, and the solemnity of his manner, always riveted the closest attention of his audience. As a theologian he was remarkable for the extensiveness of his views; and as a controversialist, he was unusually candid and fair. Everything he wrote was characterized by originality, and by the excellent spirit which breathed through them all. His powers of reasoning were resistless; and hence arises that wondrous trait in all his grand treatises, namely, the unanswerableness of his arguments. Such are a few of the prominent points in the life, character, and writings of the truly great President Edwards.

* Mr. Edwards had intended to prepare several works; one of them was "A Harmony of the Old and New Testaments," and another, which would have been his masterpiece, he had begun on the "History of the Work of Redemption," a complete system of divinity on a new plan, in which the events of heaven, earth, and hell, should be treated in their natural order, and the various parts of dogmatical theology so interwoven as to appear in beautiful harmony with the whole.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

PROBABLY a greater man than BENJAMIN FRANKLIN never lived, regarded with that analytical discrimination which distinguishes true greatness in inherent qualities rather than in brilliant external displays; and in almost every particular characteristic of a man, he presented a model of excellence of the highest standard.

Benjamin Franklin was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 17th of January, 1706. His father was a true puritan, and immigrated hither from England, in 1682. He soon after married Miss Folger, a native of Boston. Being neither a mechanic nor farmer, he turned his attention to the business of a soap-boiler and tallow-chandler, which was his occupation for life.

The parents of Benjamin wished him to be a minister of the gospel, and they began to educate him with that end in view, but their slender means were not adequate for the object, and the intention was abandoned. He was kept at a common school for a few years, and then taken into the service of his father. The business did not please the boy, and he was entered, on probation, with a cutler. The fee for his admission to apprenticeship was too high, and he abandoned that pursuit also, and was put under the instruction of an elder brother, who was a printer. There he continued until he became quite proficient, and all the while he was remarkable for his studiousness, seldom spending an hour

from his books, in idle amusement. At length the harmony between himself and brother was interrupted, and he left his service and went on board of a vessel in the harbor, bound for New York. In that city he could not obtain employment, and he proceeded on foot to Philadelphia, where he arrived on a sabbath morning. His first appearance there attracted considerable attention in the streets. With his spare clothing in his pocket, and a loaf of bread under each arm, he wandered about until he came to a quaker meeting, where he entered, sat down, went to sleep, and slept soundly until worship was closed. He was then awakened by one of the congregation, and he sought some other place of rest. He was then but seventeen years old, friendless and alone, with but a single dollar in his pocket. He soon found employment as compositor in one of the two printing establishments then in Philadelphia, and was at once noticed and esteemed by his employers, for his industry and studious habits.

Having written a letter to a friend at Newcastle in Delaware, in which he gave a graphic account of his journey from Boston to Philadelphia, which letter was shown to Governor Keith, of that province, that functionary became much interested in the young journeyman-printer, and invited him to his mansion. Friendship succeeded the first interview, and the governor advised him to set up business for himself, and offered his patronage. The plan of operation was rather an extensive one, and involved the necessity of making a voyage to England for materials. Franklin went to London, but found Sir William Keith's patronage of so little avail, that he was obliged to seek employment for his daily bread. He obtained a situation as journeyman printer in one of the principal offices there, and by the same line of industry, studiousness, punctuality, and frugality, he soon won to himself numerous friends. Unfortunately he was thrown in the way of some distinguished infidels while in London (among whom was Lord Mandeville), and received flattering attentions from them. His mind became tintured with their views, and he was induced to write a pamphlet upon deistical metaphysics, a performance which he afterward regretted, and candidly condemned.

With the fruits of his earnings Franklin resolved to take a trip to the continent, but just as he was on the point of departure, he received an offer from a mercantile friend, about to sail for America, to accompany him as a clerk. He accepted it, and embarked for home in July, 1726.

With his new employer, at Philadelphia, Franklin had before him a prospect of prosperity and wealth, but soon a heavy cloud obscured the bright vision. His friend died, and once more Franklin became a journeyman-printer with his old employer. In a short time he formed a partnership with another printer, and commenced business in Philadelphia, where his character, habits, and talents, soon gained him warm friends, public confidence, and a successful business. In 1730, he married a young widow lady whose maiden name was Read. He had sought her hand before going to England, but she gave it to another. Her husband died while Franklin was absent, and their intimacy was renewed soon after his return. So multifarious were the public and private labors of usefulness of this great man, from this period until his death, that our circumscribed limits will permit us to notice them only in brief chronological order.

In 1732, Franklin began his useful annual, called "Poor Richard's Almanac." It was widely circulated in the colonies, and in England, and was translated into several continental languages of Europe. It continued until 1757. About the same time he commenced a newspaper, which soon became the most popular one in the colonies. By constant, persevering study, he acquired a knowledge of the Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian languages. He projected a literary club, called the Junto, and the books which they collected for their use, formed the nucleus of the present extensive Philadelphia library. He wrote many pamphlets containing essays upon popular subjects, which were read with

avidity, and made him very popular. With his popularity, his business increased, and his pecuniary circumstances became easy in a few years.

In 1734, he was appointed government printer for Pennsylvania, and in 1736 he received the appointment of clerk of the general assembly. The next year he was made postmaster of Philadelphia. The income arising from these offices, and from his business, relieved him from constant drudgery, and left him leisure for philosophical pursuits, and the advancement of schemes for the public good. He organized fire companies in Philadelphia, the first on the continent, and he devised means for paving the streets, and lighting the city with gas. All military discipline in the province had become entirely neglected, but Franklin saw the utility of a thorough knowledge of tactics, and he applied himself to the task of instruction. He projected the "American Philosophical Society," the "Pennsylvania Hospital," and the "Pennsylvania University." In 1742, he published a treatise on the improvement of chimneys, and invented the celebrated stove which bears his name. This invention he gave to the public.

In 1741, he commenced the publication of the "General Magazine and Historical Chronicle, for the British Plantations," which had a wide circulation. In 1744, he was elected a member of the general assembly, and was annually re-elected for ten consecutive years. It was about this time that he made some of his philosophical discoveries, upon the mysterious wings of which his fame spread world-wide.

In 1753, he was appointed a commissioner to treat with the Indians at Carlisle. In 1754, he was a delegate from Pennsylvania to a convention of representatives of the colonies that met at Albany to consult upon the general defence and security against the French. He there proposed an admirable plan of union. About this time he was appointed deputy postmaster-general. He was also active in improving the military affairs of the colony, and rendered General Braddock distinguished service in providing materials for his expedition against Fort du Quesne. In 1757, Franklin was sent by the general assembly of the province, to London, as its counsel in a dispute with the governor; and he so managed the case as to obtain a verdict for the assembly. He remained a resident agent for the colony, in England, for five years, and formed many valuable acquaintances while there. On his return, he was publicly thanked by the general assembly, and the sum of twenty thousand dollars was presented to him as compensation for his important services.

In 1764, he was again sent to England as agent for the colony, upon business similar to that for which he was first sent, and he was there when the stamp act was passed, loudly and boldly protesting against it. His opinions had great weight there; and, having been appointed agent for several of the colonies, the eyes of statesmen at home and abroad were turned anxiously toward him, as the storm of the Revolution rapidly gathered in dark and threatening clouds. He labored assiduously to effect conciliation, and he did much to arrest for a long time the blow that finally severed the colonies from the mother-country. Satisfied at length that war was inevitable, he returned home in 1775, and was at once elected a delegate to the general congress. He was again elected in 1776, and was one of the committee appointed to draft a declaration of independence, and voted for its adoption, and signed it on the 2d of August.

In September, Franklin was appointed one of three commissioners to meet Lord Howe in conference on Staten Island, and hear his propositions for peace. The attempt at conciliation proved abortive, and hostilities commenced. About this time a convention was called in Pennsylvania, for the purpose of organizing a state government, according to the recommendation of the general congress. Franklin was chosen its president, and his wisdom was manifested in the constitution which followed. He was appointed by Congress a commis-

sioner to the court of France, to negotiate a treaty of alliance. Although then over seventy years of age, he accepted the appointment, and sailed in October, 1776. He was received with distinguished honors, and strong expressions of sympathy in behalf of his country were made; yet the French ministry were so cautious, that it was not until the news of the capture of Burgoyne reached them, and American affairs looked brighter, that they would enter into a formal negotiation. A treaty was finally concluded, and was signed by Franklin and the French minister, in February, 1778. America was acknowledged independent, and the French government openly espoused her cause. Franklin was invested by Congress with almost unlimited discretionary powers, and his duties were very arduous and complex; yet he discharged them with a fidelity and skill which excited the admiration of Europe. Great Britain at length yielded, and consented to negotiate a treaty of peace upon the basis of American independence, and on the 3d of September, 1783, Doctor Franklin had the pleasure of signing a definitive treaty to that effect. It was on this occasion, that Franklin again put on a suit of clothes which ten years before, on the occasion of his being insulted before the English privy council, he declared he would never wear again until he had "signed England's degradation and America's independence."

Franklin now asked leave of Congress to return home to his family,* but he was detained there until the arrival of Mr. Jefferson, his successor, in 1785. His return to America was received with every demonstration of joy and respect, not only from the most distinguished individuals, but from nearly every public body in the country. Notwithstanding his great age (eighty years), the public claimed his services, and he was appointed president of Pennsylvania, which office he held three years. In 1787, he was in the convention which framed the present constitution of the United States, and this was the last public duty he performed. The gout and stone, with which he had been afflicted many years, terminated his life on the 17th of April, 1790, in the eighty-fourth year of his age. A vast concourse of people followed his body to the grave, and the whole country, nay, the whole civilized world, mourned his loss.

Congress directed a universal mourning throughout the United States for thirty days. In France, and indeed throughout Europe, the news of his death was received with profound grief. The deputies of the national assembly of France adopted a resolution to wear mourning for three days; the eloquent Mirabeau announced his death, in a brief but brilliant eulogium, in which he used these words: "Franklin is dead!" (A profound silence reigned throughout the hall.) "The genius which gave freedom to America, and scattered torrents of light upon Europe, is returned to the bosom of the Divinity! The sage, whom two worlds claim—the man disputed by the history of the sciences, and the history of empires—holds, most undoubtedly, an elevated rank among the human species. Political cabinets have too long notified the death of those who were never great but in their funeral orations; the etiquette of courts have but too long sanctioned hypocritical grief. Nations ought only to mourn for their benefactors; the representatives of freemen ought never to recommend any other than the heroes of humanity to their homage. * * * * * Antiquity would have elevated altars to that mortal, who, for the advantage of the human race, embracing both heaven and earth in his vast and extensive mind, knew how to subdue thunder and tyranny! Enlightened and free Europe at least owes its remembrance and its regrets, to one of the greatest men who has ever served the cause of philosophy and of liberty."

* Franklin had two children, a son and daughter. The former was a royal governor of New Jersey before the Revolution, and adhering to the government, he went to England, where he died. His daughter married Mr. Bache, of Philadelphia, whose descendants are among the first families of that city at the present time.



LINNÆUS.

THE celebrated CHARLES VON LINNÉ, or LINNÆUS, as he is generally called in this country, the prince of modern botanists, was born, as he himself informs us, at the small village of Sashult, in the parish of Stenbrohult, in the province of Smaland, Sweden, May 23, 1707. His ancestors were humble peasants; but his father, after struggling through many difficulties, had qualified himself to enter the church, and at the time of the birth of Charles, who was his eldest child, held the cure of the parish of Stenbrohult. He was very fond of botany, and had a large collection of rare and foreign plants in his garden, in which he spent much of his time, and where Charles, almost as soon as he had left his cradle, was his constant companion. It was in this way, no doubt, that he was first led to the love of the science, which he was destined so greatly to adorn. "But his bent," to quote his own words, "was first decidedly displayed on the following occasion. He was scarcely four years old when he accompanied his father to a feast at Mökler; and in the evening, it being a very pleasant season of the year, the guests seated themselves on some flowery turf, listening to the pastor, who made various remarks on the names and properties of the plants, showing them the roots of the *Succisa*, *Tormentilla*, *Orchides*, &c. The child paid the most uninterrupted attention to all he saw and heard, and from that hour never ceased harassing his father about the name, qualities, and nature, of every plant he met with; indeed he very often asked more than his father was able to answer, but, like other children, he used immediately to forget what he had learned, and especially the names of plants. Hence, the father was sometimes put out of humor, and refused to an-

swer him, unless he would promise to remember what was told him. Nor had this harshness any bad effect, for he afterward retained with ease whatever he heard." When Linnæus was ten years old he was sent to school at Wexio, to be educated for the church; and here and at the gymnasium of the same place he continued for eight or nine years. During all this time, however, he confesses that he made very little progress in the studies to which he was chiefly expected to attend; in mathematical and physical science he was superior to most of his schoolfellows, but in literature and the languages he made little or no progress. The bent of his mind was so strong in one direction that everything but his favorite pursuits appeared indifferent to him—the peculiarity of all enthusiasts, and the chief source both of their weakness and of their strength. Whenever he could escape from the school, he was off to gather botanical specimens in the fields and woods. The consequence of all this was, that in 1726, when his father came to bring him home from the gymnasium with the intention of sending him to the university, he received such an account of him from the masters, that he gave up all thought of educating him for the church, and determined to bind him apprentice to some mechanical occupation. He had in fact made up his mind to article him to a shoemaker or tailor, when he fortunately happened to call upon a Dr. Rothmann, a physician in the town. He mentioned his intentions with regard to his son, and the vexation which his conduct had occasioned him. Dr. Rothmann took a more considerate, and as it turned out, a much truer view of the case, than either the young man's masters or his father had done. It was pretty evident, he acknowledged, that Charles was not likely to become a luminary of the church; but it did not follow from that that he might not succeed in a more congenial profession. In short, the benevolent physician, ended the conversation by proposing to the clergyman to take his son into his own house, if he would permit him to continue his studies, not in divinity, but in medicine. Such an offer, which, besides other valuable advantages, promised so much to lighten the expense of the young man's education, was not to be rejected. Next year, Linnæus proceeded to the university of Lund. We must not, however, omit the amusing, and as he calls it himself, "not very creditable certificate," with which he was dismissed by the head master of the gymnasium: "Youth at school," it said, "may be compared to shrubs in a garden, which will sometimes, though rarely, elude all the care of the gardener, but if transplanted into a different soil, may become fruitful trees. With this view, therefore, and no other, the bearer is sent to the university, where it is possible that he may meet with a climate propitious to his progress." But Linnæus, by the favor of a friend, found means to get his name enrolled in the classes, without showing this document, the horticultural style of which, at any rate, was so appropriate to the subject. At Lund he was taken into the house of Stobæus, one of the medical professors, who was charmed with the botanical knowledge he found him to possess; and he derived particular advantage from the extensive library belonging to this gentleman, often sitting up all night to peruse the books which he borrowed from it. Next year, however, he determined to leave this comfortable retreat for the university of Upsala, where he thought he would enjoy superior advantages. All the assistance that his parents could give him for this project, amounted to a sum of about forty dollars, and with this he set out. "But in a short time," as he tells us, "he found his pocket quite empty, no chance of obtaining private pupils (who in fact are seldom put under the care of medical students), nor any other means of obtaining a livelihood. He was obliged to trust to chance for a meal, and, in the article of dress was driven to such shifts that he was obliged, when his shoes required mending, to patch them with folded paper, instead of sending them to the cobbler." Here also, however, his talents and acquirements at last recommended him to a protector, the eminent pro-

fessor Celsius, who took him into his own house, as Rothman and Stobæus had done before. It was, while at Upsala, about the close of the year 1729, that his thoughts were first turned to the new views upon which he has founded his celebrated system of vegetable nature, by the perusal of a review of Valliant's treatise on the sexes of plants in the Leipsic Commentaries. Soon after he put a sketch of his system into the hands of Rudbeck, the professor of botany, and that gentleman was so much struck with its novelty and ingenuity that he immediately formed an intimate acquaintance with the author, and eventually employed him as his assistant in lecturing. This was the first escape which Linnæus made from obscurity into anything like public notice; but he had still a long course of difficulties to contend with. Meanwhile he was making himself known over all Europe by a rapid succession of publications illustrative of his new views in natural history. That study was becoming more and more every year a passion which absorbed his whole mind. In 1736, he visited England, where he is said to have been so enchanted by the golden bloom of the furze in the neighborhood of London, and especially on Putney heath, that he fell on his knees in a rapture of delight at the sight. At last, about the year 1739, he took up his residence as a practising physician at Stockholm. In 1741, he was appointed professor of medicine at Upsala, and from this time he may be considered as having been on the fair road to fame and fortune. The "*Species Plantarum*," his great work, in which his system was first fully developed, appeared in 1753, in two volumes, which, however, have since been extended to ten. In 1758, he was created by the king of Sweden, a knight of the distinguished order of the Polar Star, and in 1761 was ennobled. After many literary labors, which we have not space to enumerate, and accumulating a respectable fortune, this great naturalist died at his estate of Hammarby, near Upsala, on the 11th of January, 1778, in the seventy-first year of his age. At the conclusion of a very curious diary kept by him, which has been published, he gives an account of his own character and habits at great length. He was, he says, in the highest degree averse from everything that bore the appearance of pride. He was not luxurious, but lived as temperately as most people. During the winter he slept from nine till seven, but in summer from ten to three. He never deferred doing what was necessary to be done. Everything he observed he noted down in its proper place immediately, and never trusted it to memory. He always entertained veneration and admiration for his Creator, and endeavored to trace his science to its Author.

EARL OF CHATHAM.

WILLIAM PITT, commonly distinguished as the *Great Lord Chatham*, was born at London, November 15, 1708, and was the son of Robert Pitt, Esq., of Boconnoc, in Cornwall. He was educated first at Eton, and afterward at Trinity college, Oxford, of which he was entered a gentleman commoner in 1726. On leaving the university he purchased a cornetcy in the regiment of the Blues; but, urged probably by the desire of obtaining a more suitable field for the display of his abilities than a military life afforded, in 1735 he procured himself to be elected to parliament for the family borough of Old Sarum.

Sir Robert Walpole was then at the head of affairs; and Pitt immediately joined the opposition, which eventually compelled that minister to retire in 1742. For the part which he thus took he was, the year after he entered parliament, deprived by Walpole of his commission, but was compensated by being made one of the gentlemen of the bedchamber to Frederick prince of Wales,



father to George III. His eloquence, as soon as he began to take a part in the debates, raised him to distinction and importance; and imperfectly as the proceedings of the house were then communicated to the public, his reputation as one of the most powerful speakers of the day seems to have rapidly spread itself over the nation. It was in 1740, in the course of this contest with Walpole's administration, that on a motion relating to impressment, he made his famous reply to Mr. Horatio Walpole, the brother of the minister, vindicating himself from the double charge of youth and theatrical elocution, which Johnson reported with so much spirit in the "Gentleman's Magazine."

Walpole's administration was succeeded by that of Lord Carteret (afterward earl of Granville); but this change did not introduce Pitt to office. The celebrated Sarah duchess of Marlborough, however, left him in 1744 a legacy of ten thousand pounds sterling, in reward, as it was expressed in the will, of the noble disinterestedness with which he had maintained the authority of the laws, and prevented the ruin of his country. The following year he resigned his post in the household of the prince.

In 1746, under the premiership of the duke of Newcastle, Mr. Pitt was for the first time chosen to fill a place in the government, being appointed to the office of vice-treasurer of Ireland, from which he was transferred the same year to that of paymaster-general of the forces. In this situation, which he held for nearly nine years, he displayed his characteristic activity, energy, and decision, and the most high-minded integrity, and contempt for many of the customary profits of office. In 1755, however, on a disagreement with the majority of his colleagues, he resigned: but, in little more than a year after, the force of public opinion compelled his recall; and on the 4th of December, 1756, he was appointed principal secretary of state. In the April following, finding his views still thwarted by the rest of the cabinet, he again retired; but within

less than three months the king was obliged to yield to the national voice, the ministry was driven from power, and a new one was formed under the auspices of Pitt, who, reinstated in his former place of secretary of state, now exercised under that name the authority of premier. For the next four years Pitt may be regarded as having been the director of the energies of England; and they are four of the most glorious years in the history of that country. Victory crowned the British arms wherever they appeared, whether on sea or land; the French were beaten at almost every point both in the East and in the West; the vast territory of Canada was wrested from them, almost before the government at home was aware that it was in danger; and they were eventually stripped of nearly all their other colonies in every part of the world. Along with these successes abroad, tranquillity and contentment at home no less remarkably distinguished the supremacy of this able, patriotic, and popular minister.

In October, 1760, George II. died, and the ascendancy of new principles which the new reign brought along with it, before long compelled Pitt to tender his resignation of his services. His administration terminated, and that of Lord Bute commenced, in October, 1761. Although Pitt, however, had found it necessary to retire from the management of affairs, his sovereign was so sensible of his great deserts, that a barony was bestowed upon his lady, and a pension of three thousand pounds a year granted to him for their conjoint lives and for that of his eldest son. After this, he remained out of office till 1766, when, after the failure of the Rockingham administration, it was found necessary in the embarrassed state of public affairs, occasioned by the first troubles respecting the American stamp-act, again to call for the assistance of the man who was generally believed best able to serve the country; and in July that year he was intrusted with the formation of a new cabinet. In the arrangement which he made upon this occasion he reserved to himself along with the premiership the office of lord privy-seal, as better suiting, than one of more active duties, the enfeebled state of his health, now greatly broken down by attacks of the gout, to which he had long been subject. He also went to the house of lords, with the title of earl of Chatham. He now applied himself with his best endeavors to heal the differences with America; but the opposition of his colleagues rendered him unable to carry into effect the measures which he would have taken for this purpose; and, in December, 1768, he again resigned.

Lord Chatham lived for nearly ten years after this; and, although his increasing infirmities compelled him to spend much of his time in retirement in the country, he frequently presented himself in his place in parliament, when important discussions were to take place, and never distinguished himself more than he did, on some of these occasions, by his eloquent and indignant appeals against the headlong course of misgovernment in which ministers were proceeding, and his maintenance of the constitutional rights and liberties of his countrymen.

The conduct of the house of commons, in the case of the Middlesex election (when, by the repeated rejection of Mr. Wilkes, after he had been returned by a majority of votes, they attempted to establish the principle that an expulsion from the house created a perpetual and indelible disqualification to serve as a representative), was earnestly and perseveringly reprobated by Lord Chatham.

It was the contest with America which called forth from Lord Chatham the most brilliant efforts of his latter days, and perhaps of his life. He may be said to have expired in resisting the infatuated measures which, in provoking this war, led to the dismemberment of the empire. On the 7th of April, 1778, when a motion on this subject was to be discussed, he appeared for the last time in the house of lords, leaning on the arm of his son, with his majestic figure wrapped in flannels, and his face pale as death. After delivering his sentiments with his accustomed fervor, he sat down. On rising again, how-



Death of the Earl of Chatham—from the Picture by J. S. Copley.

ever, a short time afterward, to reply to some observations which had been made upon his address, he fell back in the arms of the duke of Cumberland and Lord Temple, who sat beside him, speechless, and to all appearance insensible. Lord Chatham recovered so far as to be removed to his country-house at Hayes, where he lingered till the 12th of May, when he expired, entirely exhausted, in the seventieth year of his age.

The characteristics of this celebrated minister were vigor, decision, a mind prophetic of consequences, and an eloquence so commanding, that probably nothing quite equal to it has distinguished any other speaker in modern times. Judging rather by the effects which it is recorded to have produced, than by any pretended reports of particular speeches, it must have contained an extraordinary share of the vehemence and power by which Demosthenes, in ancient Greece, "wielded at will that fierce democritie."



SAMUEL JOHNSON.

DR. SAMUEL JOHNSON was born September 7, 1709, in the city of Litchfield, England, where his father was a bookseller. Having received the elements of a classical education, principally at the grammar-school of his native place, he was sent at the age of nineteen to Pembroke college, Oxford, by a gentleman who engaged to maintain him there as a companion to his son. After some time, however, this person withdrew his aid; and Johnson, having made an ineffectual attempt to subsist on his own resources, found himself obliged to

discontinue his residence before obtaining a degree. He had already, however, during the period he spent at the university, obtained a high reputation for scholarship and abilities.

For many succeeding years the life of this distinguished luminary of English literature was one of those hard struggles with poverty which learning and genius have been so often called on to sustain. About the time that he left college (namely, in 1731), his father died, leaving scarcely a hundred dollars behind him. Thus situated, Johnson was constrained to accept the office of usher at the grammar-school of Market Bosworth. But the treatment to which he was subjected soon forced him to give up this appointment. He now attempted in succession various projects of a literary nature, in order to escape from the extremest indigence. In 1735, he married a Mrs. Porter, the widow of a mercer, who brought him a fortune of about four thousand dollars, and with this money he opened a boarding-school at Edial. But the scheme met with no success. He then determined to set out for London; and there accordingly he arrived in March, 1737, accompanied by a young friend, who had been one of his pupils, David Garrick, who afterward became the greatest actor that the modern world had seen. The first employment which he obtained was from the proprietors of the "Gentleman's Magazine." But the emoluments he derived from this source were very insufficient to afford him a respectable subsistence; and he was often without a shilling to procure him bread during the day, or a lodging wherein to lay his head at night. These difficulties clung to him for a long while, but they did not prevent him from gradually working his way to literary distinction. His reports of parliamentary debates, inserted in the "Gentleman's Magazine," which were often almost entirely original compositions of his own, attracted a great deal of notice; but it was not till long afterward that their authorship was generally known.

The year after his arrival in the metropolis, Johnson published his poem, entitled "London," in imitation of the third Satire of Juvenal. This production had the honor of being very warmly commended by Pope. In 1744 appeared his eloquent and striking life of his friend Savage the poet. Three years afterward he was engaged by an association of booksellers to prepare a new "Dictionary of the English Language." This celebrated work occupied the greater part of his time for seven years, and at last appeared in 1755, after the money, fifteen hundred guineas, which it had been agreed he should receive, was all spent. It brought him, however, a large share of public applause, and at once placed his name among the first of the living cultivators of English literature. Meanwhile, even before the appearance of his dictionary, he had by various occasional productions been steadily advancing himself in reputation, although not in wealth. In 1749, he gave to the world his imitation of Juvenal's tenth Satire, under the title of "The Vanity of Human Wishes." The same year his tragedy of "Irene," which he had brought with him when he first came to town, was produced at the Drury Lane by his friend Garrick. In March, 1750, he commenced the publication of "The Rambler," which he continued for two years at the rate of two papers every week, the whole, with the exception of only five numbers, being the production of his own pen. These, and other works, however, failed in relieving him from the pressure of great pecuniary difficulties, as is proved by the fact that in 1756 he was arrested for a debt of about twenty-five dollars, and only obtained his liberty by borrowing the money from a friend.

In 1758, he began a new periodical publication, to which he gave the name of "The Idler," and which, like "The Rambler," he carried on for about two years. In 1759, his mother, to whom he was tenderly attached, died at an advanced age; and having gone down to Litchfield to superintend her funeral, he there wrote his beautiful romance of "Rasselas" in a single week, while

his parent lay unburied, in order to obtain the means of defraying the expenses of her interment. This may well be characterized as the finest anecdote that is to be told of Dr. Johnson ; for the whole range of biography scarcely records anything more noble or affecting. At last, in 1762, the crown was advised to bestow upon him a pension of about fifteen hundred dollars per annum, an act of bounty which placed him for the rest of his life in ease and affluence. After this he distinguished himself as much by the brilliancy and power of his conversation in the literary circles and general society which he frequented as by his labors with his pen ; but still he was far from relinquishing authorship. In 1765 appeared a new edition of Shakspeare, in the superintendence of which he had been long engaged, and the splendid preface to which is one of the most celebrated of his productions. In 1773, he published the well-known account of his "Journey to the Western Isles of Scotland," which he had just accomplished in company with his friend Boswell. In 1775, he received the degree of LL. D. from the University of Oxford ; and, in 1781, he brought to a close the last, and perhaps, upon the whole, the greatest of his works, his "Lives of the Poets," in four volumes octavo. He survived this publication only a few years, and having died on the 13th of December, 1784, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, he was interred with great solemnity in Westminster abbey, in a grave near to that of his friend Garrick.

Notwithstanding considerable heat of temper and arrogance of manner, as well as some weak prejudices and singularities by which he was marked, it is impossible to deny that the moral character of Dr. Johnson abounded in noble points, or to regard it upon the whole with other feelings than those of admiration and reverence. A scrupulous respect for virtue, evinced by both the language and scope of all his writings and by the unvarying tenor of his conduct, a lofty scorn of injustice and baseness, a spirit of independence and self-reliance which no trials and sufferings could tame down to either despair or servility, a warm sympathy with human sorrow wheresoever found or howsoever caused, the intrepidity to do a good action in the face even of the world's laugh, and charity in relieving the unfortunate to the utmost verge of his means, and even to his own painful inconvenience—all these dispositions, based on religious principle, and adorned and crowned by the most fervid piety, are sufficient to cast into the shade far deeper traits of frailty than any with which his nature can fairly be said to have been marked.

The question of the intellectual rank properly belonging to Dr. Johnson has given rise to more difference of opinion. He was certainly neither a very original nor a very subtle thinker ; and his eminence, indeed, will probably be maintained even by his warmest admirers on the ground rather of his powers of expression than of thought. His poetry rarely ascends beyond the height of rhetoric in rhyme ; and his metaphysical and philosophical speculations are throughout extremely commonplace and unrefined. But in what may be called the *art* of criticism, the detection of conventional beauties and defects, and the delineation of the merely *literary* character of a writer's productions, he is a great master. His style is undoubtedly a bad one in the main ; for, to say nothing of its being more Latin than English, and so studiously regulated on the principle of mere sonorousness that it almost entirely wants picturesqueness and the other higher qualities which contribute to effective expression, it is suited at the best to only one kind of writing, the grave didactic. Still, with all its faults, even this style has great qualities. Its dignity is often very imposing, and its inventor is certainly entitled to the praise of having set the example of a grammatical accuracy and general finish of composition not to be found in the works of the best writers in our language before his time, but which have since been copied by all.



CHARLES MICHEL DE L'EPEE.

CHARLES MICHEL DE L'EPEE was born at Versailles in 1712. His father, who was the king's architect, was a clever and a good man, and brought up his family as all good men wished to do. Young De l'Épée was therefore fitly trained up. No scenes of domestic misery, arising from the indulgence of evil habits, passed before his eyes—his parents taught him the theory and showed him the practice of the fear of God and the love of his neighbor. He was educated for the church. Conscientious scruples stood in the way of his obtaining holy orders: being a Jansenist, he refused to sign a formulary of faith according to the established practice of the diocese of Paris, and he could not get past the rank of deacon. He therefore turned his attention to the law: but this profession did not suit his inclination and spirit. "His only desire was to be a minister of the gospel of peace, and at last he was successful."



A nephew of the celebrated Bossuet, who, like his uncle, was a pious and liberal-minded man, being then bishop of Troyes, ordained M. de l'Épée, and gave him a canonry in his cathedral-church.

The Abbé de l'Épée's attention was directed to the education of the deaf and dumb by an incidental circumstance. Business took him one day to a house where he found only two young women, who were busily engaged in needle-work. He spoke to them repeatedly, but received no answer. The mother arrived, and explained to him the cause of their silence—the two sisters were deaf and dumb! A kind ecclesiastic named Vanin, had tried to educate them by means of pictures; but after his death they were neglected. "Believing," say M. de l'Épée, "that these two children would live and die in ignorance of their religion, if I did not attempt some means of instructing them, I was touched with compassion, and told the mother that she might send them daily to my house, and that I would do whatever I might find possible for them."

M. de l'Épée recollected that when he was about sixteen years of age, his tutor, in a conversation he had with him, had proved to him that there is no more natural connection between ideas and the sounds by which they are expressed to the ear, than between these same ideas and the written characters by which they are expressed to the eye. Thus, take any particular word, say *water* or *fire*:—the Englishman who hears these words spoken, or sees them in writing or in print, immediately associates the words with the things themselves, but to a foreigner ignorant of our language they convey no meaning at all. If ideas can be conveyed to the mind independently of sight or of sound, it follows that the blind can be taught to read by their fingers, and the deaf and dumb to speak by their hands, and to hear with their eyes. On this groundwork M. de l'Épée commenced, and devoted himself to the task of teaching the deaf and dumb. Some people thought him a fool for his pains, and ridiculed his labors, others pitied the infatuation of the good-natured enthusiast, vainly, as they imagined, trying to get access to minds shut up in prison. But neither sneers nor pity stopped the labors of the worthy abbé. At last public opinion began to change; a clergyman said to him one day, "I formerly pitied you, I now pity you no longer; you are restoring to society and to religion beings who have been strangers to both." (We have introduced on pp. 268, 270, representations of the single and double-handed alphabets as taught by M. de l'Épée, and generally in use in this country and in Europe, which may be of practical use to some, and not without interest to many.)

"One day," says M. de l'Épée, "a stranger came to our public lesson, and offering me a Spanish book, said that it would be a real service to the owner if I would purchase it. I answered, that as I did not understand the language, it would be totally useless to me: but opening it casually, what should I see but the manual alphabet of the Spaniards neatly executed in copperplate! I wanted no further inducement; I paid the messenger his demand, and kept the book. I then became impatient for the conclusion of the lesson; and what was my surprise when I found this title, '*Arte para enseñar á hablar los Mudos.*' I had little difficulty to guess that this signified 'The Art of teaching the Dumb to speak,' and I immediately resolved to acquire the Spanish language for the benefit of my pupils."

M. de l'Épée's attention was soon afterward directed to another book, written in Latin, by John Conrad Amman, a Swiss physician, who resided at Haarlem, and who, in 1690, had undertaken the instruction of a girl, deaf and dumb from birth. These two works enabled him to form a system for himself, which, though it was deficient in real usefulness, as compared with the improvements since made in this department of instruction, was yet abundantly successful.

But M. de l'Épée did more than devote his time and labor to the instruction of the deaf and dumb. His income was about four hundred pounds a year.



The Double-Handed Manual Alphabet.

Of this, he allowed about one hundred pounds for his own expenses, and he "considered the remainder as the inheritance of his adopted children—the indigent deaf and dumb—to whose use it was faithfully applied. 'The rich,' says he, 'only come to my house by tolerance; it is not to them that I devote myself—it is to the poor: but for these I should never have undertaken the education of the deaf and dumb.' There was no kind of privation which he did not impose on himself, for the sake of his pupils. In order to supply their wants, he limited his own. So strictly did he adhere to the appropriation which he had made of his income, that in the rigorous winter of 1788, when suffering under the infirmities of age, he denied himself fuel, in order not to intrench upon the moderate sum to which he had confined his annual expenditure. All the remonstrances of his friends on this point were fruitless. His housekeeper having observed his rigid restriction, and doubtless imputing it to his real motive, led into his apartment his forty pupils, who conjured him to preserve himself for their sakes. He yielded not without difficulty to their persuasions, but afterward reproached himself for this concession. Having exceeded his ordinary expenditure by about three hundred livres (about sixty dollars), he would afterward exclaim, in the midst of his pupils, 'My poor children, I have wronged you of a hundred crowns.'"

The abbé, in his old age, and when the effects of his labors were too conspicuous to be reviled, received both approbation and flattery. The ambassador of Catherine of Russia offered him rich presents. "My lord," said the abbé, "I never receive gold; tell her majesty, that if my labors have appeared to her to claim her esteem, all that I ask is, that she will send me a deaf and dumb person, or a master to be instructed in this art of teaching." When the emperor Joseph, of Austria visited his institution, he expressed his astonishment that a man so deserving had not obtained at least an abbey, whose revenues he might apply to the wants of the deaf and dumb. He offered to ask one for him, or even to give him one in his own dominions. "I am already old," said M. de l'Épée; "if your majesty wishes well to the deaf and dumb, it is not on *my* head, already bending to the tomb, that the benefit must fall—it is on the work itself."

The success of the Abbé de l'Épée was not complete, but he pursued his methods with openness and candor, and with the single desire of promoting the moral and intellectual advancement of the deaf and dumb. Heinecke of Leipzig, and Pereire of Paris, must be regarded as his rivals, but he invited them to a discussion of the merits of the various systems, which they declined. While the good abbé, with that frankness which formed a beautiful feature in his character, solicited the examination and the judgment of the learned upon his methods, his rivals shrouded their proceedings under a veil of mystery. The abbé devoted his life and whole fortune, excepting a bare supply for his own wants, to the service of the class whom he had taken under his protection. Pereire refused to disclose his methods except for a large recompense; and Heinecke, in addition to receiving payment from the rich, had four hundred crowns annually allowed him by the grand duke of Saxony. Both these persons made the art they professed an interested speculation; the Abbé de l'Épée only tolerated the rich; he was proud of being the instructor of the indigent. His successor, the Abbé Sicard, carried forward the principles of De l'Épée; he instructed his pupils in the elements of composition, a branch of their education comparatively new, and in which Sicard most completely evinced his superiority over his master. Sicard at first conducted a school at Bordeaux: on the death of the Abbé de l'Épée he was called to fill his place at Paris. The Abbé de l'Épée died on the 23d of December, 1789. The king preached his funeral oration, and various honors were paid to his memory.

FREDERICK THE GREAT.

FREDERICK II., generally surnamed "the Great," was born at Berlin, Prussia, January 24, 1712, and ascended the Prussian throne in 1740. On his accession to the throne, Frederick laid claims to the province of Silesia, which had been long occupied by the German emperor, and all the attempts of Maria Theresa to defend it against his invasion proved abortive. Count Neuperg, the Hungarian general, was defeated at Molwitz, and in 1741, all Lower Silesia submitted to the conqueror, and his possession was confirmed by the treaty of Breslaw, 1743. The following year war was rekindled, and Frederick advanced with 100,000 men to the siege of Prague, which he took with 16,000 prisoners, and this advantage was soon followed by the decisive battle of Friedburg over Prince Charles of Lorraine. Another treaty signed at Dresden, 1745, again restored peace to the continent, and Austria ceded to the Prussian conqueror all Silesia, with the county of Glatz. In 1755, a new war, called the seven years' war, burst forth with increased violence, and while Prussia had for its auxiliary the English nation, Austria was supported by France, and by the elector of Saxony; and Frederick soon saw the numbers of his enemies augmented by the accession of Russia, Sweden, and Germany. Undismayed in the midst of his powerful enemies, Frederick laid the foundation for victory and success in the strict discipline of his army, and in the fortitude and resignation with which he supported the reverses of fortune, and shared the fatigues of his soldiers. Though France attacked his dominion from Guelders to Minden, and Russia penetrated into Prussia, and the Austrians into Silesia, Frederick on all sides rose superior to misfortunes. Though defeated by the Russians he routed the Austrians, and again suffered a check in Bohemia, but on the 5th November, 1757, he avenged himself by the terrible defeat of the Austrians and French at Rosbach, and by an equally splendid victory the next month, over the Austrian forces at Lissa, near Breslaw. These important successes appalled his enemies, the Russians and Swedes retired in dismay from Prussia, and Frederick, supported by a liberal supply of money from the English government, and by an army of Hanoverians under the duke of Brunswick, penetrated into Moravia, and laid siege to Olmutz. Though here checked by Marshal Daun, he rapidly advanced against the Russians at Custrin, and defeated them in the dreadful battle at Zorndoff. The battle of Hochkirchen against Daun was adverse to his fortunes, and he also suffered a severe check at the doubtful fight of Cunnersdoff against the Russians, and in consequence of these repeated disasters, Brandenburg and the capital fell into the hands of the victorious enemy, 1761. The defeat of Daun at Torgan gave a new turn to the affairs of the undaunted monarch, his territories were evacuated by the enemy, and he in every situation displayed such activity, such vigilance, and such resources of mind, that in 1762 a treaty of peace was concluded with Russia and Sweden, and the next year with France and the empire, by which Silesia was for ever confirmed in his possession. While cultivating the arts of peace, Frederick was still intent on enlarging his dominions, and he joined with Austria and Russia, in 1772, in that unpardonable league which dismembered the defenceless territories of Poland, and added some of its most fertile provinces to his kingdom. In 1777, the death of the duke of Bavaria, without children, kindled the flames of discord and war between Austria and Prussia. Frederick placed himself at the head of his troops, but the differences of the rival princes were settled by the peace of Teschen, 13th May, 1779. The last years of Frederick's life were earnestly devoted to the encouragement of commerce and of the arts, justice was administered with impartiality, useful establishments were created, and the miseries of the indigent and unfortunate were liberally relieved by the benevolent cares of the unfortunate monarch. Frederick died 17th August, 1786, aged 75. His works are numerous and respectable



Portrait of Frederick the Great.



LAURENCE STERNE.

LAURENCE STERNE, the celebrated author of "Tristram Shandy" and "The Sentimental Journey," was born at Clonmell, in Ireland, November 24, 1713. His father was Roger Sterne, a lieutenant in the army, a younger son of Dr. Sterne, archbishop of York. He received his education in England, having been sent to school at Halifax, in Yorkshire, in 1722. Even at this early age he appears to have given such indications of the vivacity of his genius as arrested the attention of discriminating observers. One day, as he has himself related, he had been tempted to scrawl his name in large letters on the white-washed wall of the schoolroom. The usher, on detecting the misdemeanor, sentenced the culprit to the usual punishment; but the master of the school, on learning what had occurred, declared that the name should never be obliterated from the wall, as it was one which he was certain would in due time secure to itself no common distinction.

On leaving school, Sterne was entered of Jesus college, Cambridge, his friends having fixed upon the church as his profession. Their choice was, as too frequently happens, directed more by other considerations than by any regard to his inclination or fitness for the sacred office. Accordingly, when Sterne, some time after leaving the university, obtained, by the interest of a brother of his father, the living of Sutton in Yorkshire, he appears to have entered upon the enjoyment of its temporalities without giving himself much trouble about its duties. He spent his time, it is said, chiefly in shooting, in the practice of music and painting, and in light and discursive reading.

In 1741, Sterne married; and soon after, through a relation of his wife he was appointed to the living of Stillington in the same county, which he held in

conjunction with the former. He also enjoyed a prebend in the cathedral of York, which he owed to his uncle. This was all the preferment he ever obtained in the church till, after he had made himself known as a writer, Lord Faulconberg bestowed upon him the living of Cawood, to which he then removed from Stillington. The first production which Sterne gave to the world was a satirical effusion entitled "The History of a Watchcoat." But it was the two commencing volumes of his "Tristram Shandy," published in 1759, which first brought him into notoriety. Very rarely has the work of a new writer produced such a sensation as did this extraordinary performance. It at once established the fame of its author as one of the most original humorists his country had ever produced; and even the censure which it drew down upon him by the freedom of many passages contributed to his celebrity. Its continuation was eagerly expected; but the third and fourth volumes did not appear till 1761. The fifth and sixth were published in 1762; the seventh and eighth in 1764; and the ninth, which concluded the work, in 1766. Soon after its completion, Sterne, whose health had for some time shown symptoms of general decay, the effect, it has been stated, rather of indulgence than of his literary exertions, was advised to seek a chance of restoration in foreign travel; and accordingly he proceeded to France, taking his family with him. From France he pursued his way alone into Italy; but the excursion was not attended with the benefit expected from it. It produced, however, "The Sentimental Journey," the work of this author perhaps which has continued longest popular, and has always been the most general favorite. It appeared in the beginning of the year 1768; and a few weeks after, about the middle of March, the author expired at his lodgings in Bond street, London, at the age of fifty-four. Beside "Tristram Shandy" and "The Sentimental Journey," Sterne published, under the name of "Yorick," two volumes of sermons in 1760, and two volumes more in 1766; and the edition of his collected works in ten volumes, which appeared after his death, contains also several letters, essays, and other miscellaneous productions of his pen.

No defence or apology can be offered for either the occasional licentiousness of Sterne's writings, or for the free and careless life, to call it no worse, which he led, so especially unbecoming the profession to which he belonged. The fine feelings, it is also asserted, which are so beautifully displayed in many of his delineations, were merely assumed for the occasion, or at any rate did not much influence his general conduct. With all his pretended sensibility, he is represented as having been in reality a man of ill temper and of a hard and selfish heart. The truth probably is, that he was at least incapable of acting upon any steady principle, or of pursuing any permanent good at the expense of a present sacrifice; and accordingly we are told that, though in the enjoyment for many years of a considerable income from his livings in the church, and his works together, he left nothing to his wife and daughter, when he died, but a load of debts!

As a writer, Sterne is undoubtedly entitled to a high rank in his peculiar line. Attempts have been made to trace the peculiarities of his style to preceding writers; and Dr. Ferriar, in particular, has certainly convicted him of having borrowed many thoughts, and even the groundwork of some pretty long passages, from Burton's "Anatomy of Melancholy" and other old English works. Arbuthnot's famous "Martinus Scriblerus" has also been pointed out as the prototype of "Tristram Shandy." Of all his predecessors, however, Rabelais is undoubtedly the writer who has the best right to be regarded as having been directly imitated by Sterne. We do not allude to particular passages, in which the one may be proved to have been a copier of the other, so much as to general resemblance of style and manner. There is in both the same nervous and idiomatic style the same whimsicality of thought and allusion, the same inter-

mixture of the most sagacious and profound remarks with the wildest absurdity, as well as the same wit and humor. In both, too, there is the same indelicacy—only far more frequent and reckless in Rabelais, whose satire is also animated in many places by a much more bitter spirit. But in this or any other parallel which may be drawn to the disadvantage of Sterne's originality, it ought never to be forgotten that his highest attribute remains still all his own—his exquisite pathos. Of this there is nothing whatever either in Burton, or Arbuthnot, or Rabelais, or any other with whom he has been compared. None of these writers could have produced the stories of the Dead Ass, of Lefevre, of the Monk, or of Maria. Nay, none of them, we may venture to affirm, could have drawn or imagined anything so full of the eccentric and the ludicrous, and yet so mild, so attractive, and, with all its singularity, so true to nature, as the delineation either of my uncle Toby or of Corporal Trim; though perhaps Cervantes might



GEORGE WHITEFIELD.

GEORGE WHITEFIELD, founder of the sect of Calvinistic methodists, was born in 1714 at Gloucester, England, where his mother kept the Bell inn. From the Crypt school of his native town he entered as servitor at Pembroke college, Oxford, where he joined the Wesleys and their associates, and on being ordained deacon at the proper age by Benson bishop of Gloucester he soon

became a popular preacher, and by his strong, persuasive eloquence multitudes were prevailed upon to regard him as a man of superior sanctity.

In 1738, Whitefield came to America, to increase the number of his converts, whither his fame had preceded him; and through the efforts of Dr. Franklin, he was induced to accept a call from the society in Philadelphia with which that great philosopher was then at least nominally connected; but differences arising among the members, Franklin withdrew from the association, and Whitefield visited Georgia and other of the colonies, including some of the West India islands, drawing large audiences wherever he went. In Georgia, more especially, where he labored as the friend and associate of the Wesleys, his conduct gave great satisfaction to the colonists, and he returned to England to procure subscriptions for building an orphan-house in that settlement. On obtaining priest's orders and repairing to London, in 1739, the churches in which he preached were incapable of holding the assembled crowds; he therefore adopted the design of preaching in the open air, which he did to vast assemblages of people, who came from all parts to hear him. For this he was peculiarly fitted by nature, in the gift of a voice of singular power and compass, which enabled him to be distinctly heard at a great distance. He also increased his popularity by preaching to the inmates of prisons. The same year (1739) he again embarked for America, and made a tour through several of the provinces, preaching to immense audiences, and resided chiefly in Georgia till 1741, when he again returned to England.

It was about this time that Whitefield engaged in a serious controversy with the Wesleys, which produced a separation. While he zealously asserted the doctrine of absolute election and final perseverance, agreeably to the notions of Calvin, his opponents regarded his opinion as unsupported by scripture, and therefore inadmissible; and in consequence of this arose the two sects of Calvinistic and Arminian methodists.

Whitefield now visited many parts of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, displaying a degree of intrepidity and zeal that overcame all difficulties. Secure in the good opinion of a great number of adherents, and in the patronage of the countess of Huntingdon (who had been converted by his preaching, and to whom he was chaplain), he continued his labors, and built two tabernacles in London, and one in Tottenham-court road, for the commodious reception of his followers. He died at Newburyport, Massachusetts, September 30, 1770, while on a visit to his churches in New England (making his seventh voyage to this country), and had the satisfaction to know that his adherents were numerous on both continents. Under the name of "Leuconomus," the character of Whitefield is well delineated by Cowper. His works form six volumes.

ISRAEL PUTNAM.

GENERAL ISRAEL PUTNAM, one of the patriots of the Revolution, was born on the 7th of January, 1718, at Salem, Massachusetts. Though lacking the advantages of a mind polished by education, he was gifted with an energy and decision of character, which distinguished him through life, and the remarkable instance he gave of it in the destruction of a wolf will ever be associated with his name. At the age of twenty-one he removed to Pomfret, an inland fertile town in Connecticut, forty miles east of Hartford, where he applied himself successfully to agriculture. Here, among many difficulties he encountered, incident to the cultivation of a new farm, was the destruction of his sheep by



Portrait of General Putnam.

wolves. In one night seventy five sheep and goats were killed. A she wolf, who, with her annual whelps, had for several years infested the vicinity, being considered as the principal cause of the havoc, Mr. Putnam entered into a combination with a number of his neighbors to hunt alternately till they should destroy her. At length the hounds drove her into her den, and a number of persons soon collected with guns, straw, fire, and sulphur, to attack the common enemy. But the dogs were afraid to approach her, and the fumes of brimstone could not force her from the cavern. It was now ten o'clock at night. Mr. Putnam proposed to his black servant to descend into the cave and shoot the wolf; but, as the negro declined, he resolved to do it himself. Having divested himself of his coat and waistcoat, and having a long rope fastened around his legs, by which he might be pulled back at the concerted signal, he entered the cavern, head foremost, with a blazing torch, made of strips of birch bark, in his hand. He descended fifteen feet, passed along horizontally ten feet, and then began the gradual descent, which is sixteen feet in length. He slowly proceeded on his hands and knees, in an abode which was as silent as the house of death. Cautiously glancing forward, he discovered the glaring eyeballs of the wolf, who started at the sight of his torch, gnashed her teeth, and gave a sullen growl. He immediately kicked the rope, and was drawn out with a friendly celerity and violence which not a little bruised him. Loading his gun with nine buckshot, and carrying it in one hand while he held the torch with the other, he descended a second time. As he approached the wolf, she howled, rolled her eyes, snapped her teeth, dropped her head between her legs, and was evidently on the point of springing at him. At this moment he fired at her head, and soon found himself drawn out of the cave. Having refreshed himself, he again descended, and seizing the wolf by her ears, kicked the rope, and his companions above, with no small exultation, dragged them both out together.

During the French war, he was appointed to command a company of the first troops which were raised in Connecticut, in 1755. He rendered much service to the army in the neighborhood of Crown Point. In 1756, while near Ticonderoga, he was repeatedly in the most imminent danger. He escaped in an



Putnam killing the Wolf.

adventure of one night with twelve bullet-holes in his blanket. In August he was sent out with several hundred men, to watch the motions of the enemy. Being ambuscaded by a party of equal numbers, a general, but irregular action took place. Putnam had discharged his fusee several times, but at length it missed fire, while its muzzle was presented to the breast of an Indian chief. The warrior, with his lifted hatchet, and a tremendous war-whoop, compelled him to surrender, and then bound him to a tree. In the course of the action, the parties changed their position, so as to bring this tree directly between them. The balls flew by him incessantly; many struck the tree, and some passed through his clothes. He was also exposed to danger, from his head being taken as a mark by a young Indian to display his skill at throwing his tomahawk. The weapon several times grazed his skin and stuck in the tree beside his head. When the young savage had satisfied himself with this amusement, an inferior French officer came up and attempted to shoot him. His musket refusing to go off, he violently and repeatedly pushed its muzzle against his ribs, and finally gave him a cruel blow on the jaw with the butt-end of his piece and left him. The savages being soon afterward driven from the field took Putnam with them. At night, his captor being absent attending to the wounded, and whose humanity would not have permitted any of these outrages had he been aware of them, he was stripped, and a fire was kindled to roast him alive. For this purpose, they led him into a dark forest, stripped him naked, bound him to a tree, and piled dry brush, with other fuel, at a small distance, in a circle around him. They accompanied their labors, as if for his funeral dirge, with screams and sounds, inimitable but by savage voices. They then set the piles on fire. A sudden shower damped the rising flame. Still they strove to kindle it; at last the blaze ran fiercely round the circle. Major Putnam soon began to feel the scorching heat. His hands were so tied that he could move his body. He often shifted sides as the fire approached. This sight, at the very idea of which all but savages must shudder, afforded the highest diversion to his inhuman tormentors, who demonstrated the delirium of their joy by correspondent yells, dances, and gesticulations. He saw clearly that his final hour was inevitably come. He summoned all his resolution, and composed his mind, so far as circumstances could admit, to bid an eternal farewell to all he held most dear. To quit the world would scarcely have cost him a single pang; but for the idea of home, but for the remembrance of domestic endearments, of the affectionate partner of his soul, and of their beloved offspring. His thoughts were ultimately fixed on a happier state of existence, beyond the tortures he was beginning to endure. The bitterness of death, even of that death which is accompanied with the keenest agonies, was, in a manner, past; nature, with a feeble struggle, was quitting its last hold on sublunary things, when a French officer rushed through the crowd, opened a way by scattering the burning brands, and unbound the victim. It was Molang himself, to whom a savage, unwilling to see another human victim immolated, had run and communicated the tidings. That commandant spurned and severely reprimanded the barbarians whose nocturnal powwows and hellish orgies he suddenly ended. Putnam did not wait for feeling or gratitude. The French commander, fearing to trust him alone with them, remained until he could safely deliver him to his captor.

The savage approached his prisoner kindly, and seemed to treat him with particular affection. He offered him some hard biscuit; but finding that he could not chew them on account of the blow he had received from the Frenchman, this more humane savage soaked some of the biscuit in water, and made him suck the pulp-like part. Determined, however, not to lose his captive, the refreshment being finished, he took the moccasins from his feet, and tied them to one of his wrists; then directing him to lie down on his back on the bare ground, he stretched one arm to its full length, and bound it fast to a young

tree, the other arm was extended and bound in the same manner; his legs were stretched apart and fastened to two saplings. Then a number of tall, but slender poles were cut down, which, with some long bushes, were laid across his body from head to foot; on each side lay as many Indians as could conveniently find lodging, in order to prevent the possibility of escape. In this disagreeable and painful posture he remained till morning. During the night, the longest and most dreary conceivable, our hero used to relate that he felt a ray of cheerfulness come casually across his mind, and could not even refrain from smiling when he reflected on this ludicrous group for a painter, of which he himself was the principal figure. The next day he was allowed his blanket and moccasins, and permitted to march without carrying a pack. To allay his extreme hunger, a little bear's meat was given, which he sucked through his teeth. At night the party arrived at Ticonderoga, and the prisoner was placed under the care of a French guard.

The savages who had been prevented from glutting their diabolical thirst for blood, took this opportunity of manifesting their malevolence for the disappointment by horrid grimaces and angry gestures; but they were suffered no more to offer violence or personal indignity to him. After having been examined by the marquis de Montcalm, Major Putnam was conducted to Montreal by a French officer, who treated him with the greatest indulgence and humanity.

At this place were several prisoners. Colonel Peter Schuyler, remarkable for his philanthropy, generosity, and friendship, was of the number. No sooner had he heard of Major Putnam's arrival, than he went to the interpreter's quarters, and inquired whether he had a provincial major in his custody. He found Major Putnam in a comfortless condition, without coat, waistcoat, or hose; the remnant of his clothing miserably dirty and ragged, his beard long and squalid, his legs torn by thorns and briars, his face gashed with wounds, and swollen with bruises. Colonel Schuyler, irritated beyond all sufferance at such a sight, could scarcely retain his speech within limits consistent with the prudence of a prisoner, and the meekness of a Christian. Major Putnam was immediately treated according to his rank, clothed in a decent manner, and supplied with money, by this liberal and sympathetic patron of the distressed; and by his assistance he was soon after exchanged.

When General Amherst was marching across the country to Canada, the army coming to one of the lakes which they were obliged to pass, found the French had an armed vessel of twelve guns upon it. He was in great distress, his boats were no match for her, and she alone was capable of sinking his whole army in that situation. While he was pondering what should be done, Putnam comes to him and says, "*General, that ship must be taken.*"—"Ay," says Amherst, "I would give the world she was taken."—"I'll take her," says Putnam. Amherst smiled, and asked how. "Give me some wedges, a beetle (a large wooden hammer, or maul, used for driving wedges), and a few men of my own choice." Amherst could not conceive how an armed vessel was to be taken by four or five men, a beetle, and wedges. However, he granted Putnam's request. When night came, Putnam with his materials and men, went in a boat under the vessel's stern, and in an instant drove in the wedges between the rudder and ship, and left her. In the morning, the sails were seen fluttering about: she was adrift in the middle of the lake; and being presently blown ashore, was easily taken.

At the commencement of hostilities between the colonies and the mother-country, Colonel Putnam, on hearing of the battle of Lexington, left his plough in the middle of the field, and, without changing his clothes, repaired to Cambridge, riding in a single day one hundred miles. He was soon appointed a major-general in the provincial army, and returning to Connecticut, he made no delay in bringing on a body of troops.

Among other examples of patriotism that might be related, the following was from a living witness. The day that the report of the battle of Lexington reached Barnstable, a company of militia immediately assembled and marched off to Cambridge. In the front rank was a young man, the son of a respectable farmer, and his only child. In marching from the village, as they passed his house, he came out to meet them. There was a momentary halt. The drum and fife paused for an instant. The father suppressing a strong and evident emotion, said, "God be with you all, my friends! and, John, if you, my son, are called into battle, take care that you behave like a man, or else let me never see your face again!" A tear started into every eye, and the march was resumed.

Not long after his appointment, the commander of the British army, unwilling that so valuable an officer should act in opposition, privately conveyed to him a proposal, that if he would quit the rebel party, he might rely on being made a major-general in the British establishment, and receiving a great pecuniary compensation for his services: but he spurned the offer. On the 16th of June, 1775, it was determined in a council of war, at which General Putnam assisted, that a fortified post should be established at, or near Bunker's hill. General Putnam marched with the first detachment, and commenced the work; he was the principal agent, or engineer, who traced the lines of the redoubt, and he continued most, if not all the night, with the workmen; at any rate, he was on the spot before sunrise in the morning, and had taken his station on the top of Bunker's hill, and participated in the danger, as well as the glory of that day.

When the army was organized by General Washington, at Cambridge, General Putnam was appointed to command the reserve. In August, 1776, he was stationed at Brooklyn, on Long Island. After the defeat of our army, on the 27th of that month, he went to New York, and was very serviceable in the city and neighborhood. In October, or November, he was sent to Philadelphia to fortify that city. In January, 1777, he was directed to take post at Princeton, where he continued until spring. At this place, a sick prisoner, a captain, requested that a friend in the British army at Brunswick, might be sent for, to assist him in making his will. Putnam was perplexed. He had but fifty men under his command, and did not wish to have his weakness known; but yet he was unwilling to deny the request. He, however, sent a flag of truce, and directed the officer to be brought in the night. In the evening, lights were placed in all the college windows, and in every apartment of the vacant houses throughout the town. The officer, on his return, reported that General Putnam's army could not consist of less than four or five thousand men. In the spring, he was appointed to the command of a separate army, in the highlands of New York. One Palmer, a lieutenant in the tory new levies, was detected in the camp; Governor Tryon reclaimed him as a British officer, threatening vengeance if he was not restored. Putnam wrote the following pithy reply:—

"SIR: Nathan Palmer, a lieutenant in your king's service, was taken in my camp as a spy; he was tried as a spy; he was condemned as a spy; and he shall be hanged as a spy.

"ISRAEL PUTNAM

"P.S. Afternoon. He is hanged."

After the loss of Fort Montgomery, the commander-in-chief determined to build another fortification, and he directed General Putnam to fix on a spot. To him belongs the praise of having chosen West Point. The campaign of 1779, which was principally spent in strengthening the works at this place, finished the military career of Putnam. A paralytic affection impaired the activity of his body, and he passed the remainder of his days in retirement, retaining his relish for enjoyment, his love of pleasantry, his strength of memory, and all the faculties of his mind. He died at Brookline, Connecticut, May 29, 1790, aged seventy-two years.

WILLIAM COLLINS.

WILLIAM COLLINS, author of the "Ode on the Passions," and other poems, was born at Chichester, England, on the 29th of December, 1720. His father was a respectable hatter in the town, of which he was sometime mayor, but through misfortunes or imprudence, during the latter years of his life, the family was much embarrassed by pecuniary troubles, and was, it appears, frequently assisted by a brother of Mrs. Collins, a Colonel Martin. To this excellent relative William Collins was indebted in a great measure, perhaps entirely, for his education, which was intended to prepare him for the church. He was admitted into Winchester school on the 23d of February, 1733, where he composed his "Eclogues," and studied at the same time with such diligence, that for his merit he was placed at the head of the list of scholars for New college, where, we presume, the boys thus selected enjoyed some pecuniary advantages. At the period in question, however, there happened to be no vacancy, and Collins was accordingly placed at Queen's college, where he was supported by the liberality of his uncle. He was here, it is said, distinguished for his genius and his indolence; this latter term generally in such cases being applied to that self-communing of the mind which has nothing in common with the alleged defect except its outward appearance. His first published verses now appeared in the *Gentleman's Magazine*. In 1742, he published his *Eclogues*, and in 1743 his *Epistle to Sir Thomas Hanmer*. His habits, personal appearance, and character, are thus described by one who was acquainted with him at this period: "He was passionately fond of music, good-natured and affable, warm in his friendship, and, as long as I knew him, very temperate in his eating and drinking." After a few months' residence in the university Collins was elected a demy of Magdalen college, where he continued till he had taken the degree of bachelor, and failed in his endeavors to obtain a fellowship. It is probable that mortification at this disappointment, added to disgust at "the dullness of a college life," of which he was frequently complaining, and both heightened by annoyances resulting from the debts he had contracted, induced the young poet to quit the university and come to London. His first visit in London was to a Mr. Payne, the agent of his uncle, who was commissioned by the colonel to supply the Collins' family from time to time with small sums. Collins was gayly dressed, with a feather in his hat, and altogether made such an appearance as to surprise and displease Mr. Payne, who told him it was by no means that "of a young man who had not a single guinea to call his own." The deep sense of humiliation which we may readily conceive to have filled the soul and burnt the cheek of the young listener, was but a prelude to the greater inflictions he was destined to suffer. He now entered more freely than strict prudence would permit into the gayeties of Ranelagh and the theatres; he mingled with expensive and dissipated society. He had hitherto seen too little of the world; he now saw too much: and thus, we may conclude, passed on the first few months of his London life, during which fame receded as penury drew nigh, and debts accumulated faster than poems.

Some of the memoirs of the "*Biographia Britannica*," it appears, were to have been written by him, and were, in fact shown to Mr. Ragsdale in embryo. In addition to these evidences of industry, he wrote about the same period his imperishable *Odes*, the labor expended on which we can but imperfectly estimate in the exquisite results bequeathed to us, even although we know that his MS. bears the marks of repeated corrections, that he was perpetually changing his epithets, and that he was constantly burning what he had written. The odes were published, and their reception was such, that the miserable author purchased the unsold copies and burnt them; and not only them, but on



William Collins.—From the Bas-Relief, by Flaxman, in Chichester Cathedral.

the same funeral pile were offered up and destroyed all that had made life endurable to the man, and a still more awful sacrifice, all that made up the power and genius of the poet. From this event we conceive must be dated the commencement of the malady which left its victim, through the remainder of life, the most fearful spectacle the world can present—the wreck of genius. The highest condition of humanity, reduced to the lowest, and most horrible—the poet transformed to the madman. On the death of Thomson, in 1748, he wrote the ode to his memory, and soon after went abroad to his uncle, then in Flanders, who soon after died and left to him and his sisters (the elder Collins and his wife were both dead) his property. Collins received about two thousand pounds. The sum remaining in his possession after he had repaid the bookseller the amount advanced for the proposed translation of Aristotle, and whatever other claims there were upon him, was quite large enough to free him from any mere pecuniary anxieties. “After his return from France,” says Dr. Johnson, “the writer of this character paid him a visit at Islington, where he was waiting for his sister, whom he had directed to meet him: there was then nothing of disorder discernible in his mind *by any but himself*: but he had withdrawn from study, and travelled with no other book than an English testament, such as children carry to the school: when his friend took it into his hand, out of curiosity, to see what companion a man of letters had chosen, ‘I have but one book,’ said Collins, ‘but that is the best!’ He now sought by changes of air and scene to invigorate his powers and avert the impending calamity: he went to Bath, but returned without benefit. In 1751 he was supposed to be dying, but grew better, and in 1754 journeyed to Oxford, where he was so weak and low as to be unable to bear conversation.” Mr. White says, “I myself saw him under Merton walls in a very affecting situation, struggling and conveyed by force in the arms of two or three men toward the parish of St. Clement, in which was a house that took such unhappy objects.” Soon after this he was placed in a similar house at Chelsea, whence he was removed by his youngest sister, who took him home to his native town, and attended assiduously to his wants. The house where they resided, and in which Collins died, was in the precincts of the cathedral; and here, it is said, that his shrieks sometimes resounded through the cloisters till the horror of those who heard him was insupportable. He died in 1756, in the thirty-sixth year of his age. He was buried in the cathedral church, in which stands the monument to his memory. The design is Flaxman’s, the workmanship very beautiful, and the whole nobly commemorative of the true and honorable admiration of those who furnished the means of its erection. It represents Collins in a reading posture, during a lucid interval of his affecting malady, with a benign aspect, as if seeking refuge from his misfortunes in the consolations of the gospel, which appears upon a table before him; while his lyre and one of his best compositions lie neglected on the ground.

“That Collins,” says Dr. Johnson, “wise and virtuous as he was, passed always unentangled through the snares of life, it would be prejudice and temerity to affirm; but it may be said that at least he preserved the source of action unpolluted, that his principles were never shaken, that his distinctions of right and wrong were never confounded, and that his faults had nothing of malignity or design, but proceeded from some unexpected pressure or casual temptation.” His literary attainments were very great; he was not only a good classical scholar, but understood the Italian, French, and Spanish languages—a satisfactory answer, we may observe, to the charge of “indolence” at college. The quality and peculiar characteristics of his genius we have not here space to describe; that it is eminently deserving attention we may rest assured. Campbell observes that Collins’s poems, published when he was but twenty-seven, will bear comparison with any Milton had produced at thirty.



ROGER SHERMAN.

ONE of the most remarkable men of the revolution, was ROGER SHERMAN. He was born in Newton, Massachusetts, on the 19th of April, 1721. In 1723, the family moved to Stonington, in that state, where they lived until the death of Roger's father, in 1741. Roger was then only nineteen years of age, and the whole care and support of a large family devolved on him. He had been apprenticed to a shoemaker, but he now took charge of the small farm his father left. In 1744, they sold the farm, and moved to New Milford, in Connecticut, where an elder brother, who was married, resided. Roger performed the journey on foot, carrying his shoemaker's tools with him, and for some time he worked industriously at his trade there.

Mr. Sherman's early education was very limited, but with a naturally strong and active mind, he acquired a large stock of knowledge from books, during his apprenticeship. It is said that while at work on his bench, he had a book so placed that he could read when it was not necessary for his eyes to be upon his work. He thus acquired a good knowledge of mathematics, and he made astronomical calculations for an almanac that was published in New York, when he was only twenty-seven years old. Not long after he settled in New Milford, he formed a partnership with his brother in a mercantile business, but all the while was very studious. He turned his attention to the study of law, during his leisure hours; and so proficient did he become in legal knowledge, that he was admitted to the bar, in December, 1754. He had no instructor or guide in the study of the law, neither had he any books but such as he borrowed, yet he became one of the most profound jurists of his day.

In 1755, Mr. Sherman was elected a representative of New Milford, in the general assembly of Connecticut, and the same year he was appointed a justice of the peace. After practising law about five years, he was appointed judge of the county court for Litchfield county. He moved to New Haven in 1761, when the same appointments were conferred upon him, and in addition, he was chosen treasurer of Yale college, from which institution, in 1765, he received the honorary degree of A. M. In 1766, he was elected to the senate, or upper house of the legislature of Connecticut; and it was at this time that the passage

of the stamp-act was bringing the politicians of America to a decided stand in relation to the repeated aggressions of Great Britain. Roger Sherman fearlessly took part with the patriots, and was a leader among them in Connecticut, until the war broke out. He was elected a delegate from Connecticut to the continental Congress, in 1774, and was present at the opening on the fifth of September. He was one of the most active members of that body, and was appointed one of the committee to prepare a draft of a declaration of independence; a document to which he affixed his signature with hearty good will, after it was adopted by Congress.

Although his duties in Congress, during the war, were almost incessant, yet he was at the same time a member of the committee of safety of Connecticut. In 1783, he was appointed, with Judge Law, of New London, to revise the statutes of the state, in which service he showed great ability. He was a delegate from Connecticut in the convention in 1787 that framed the present constitution of the United States; and he was a member of the state convention of Connecticut, which assembled to act upon the ratification of that instrument. For two years after the organization of the government under the constitution, he was a member of the United States house of representatives. He was then promoted to the senate, which office he filled at the time of his death, which took place on the 23d of July, 1793, in the seventy-third year of his age. He had previously been elected mayor of New Haven, when it was invested with city powers and privileges, and that office he held until the time of his death. He was twice married, the first time to Elizabeth Hartwell, of Stoughton, and the second time to Rebecca Prescott, of Danvers. By his first wife he had seven children, and eight by his last.

"Among the illustrious characters," says an eminent historian, "whose names are inscribed upon the brightest record that adorns the annals of America, few possessed more solid attainments than Roger Sherman. He belonged to that class of statesmen who seek rather to convince the reason, than to triumph over the passions of men. The vigor of his mind appeared more conspicuous in the plain and simple manner in which it was elicited, than if it had been ornamented with all the beauties of elocution. But the energy of his address was not diminished by the absence of fanciful diction, nor the solidity of his views less admired because his feelings were partially suppressed. Without indulging in those brilliant bursts of oratory which please and sparkle for a moment, his impressive manner displayed ideas founded upon calm deliberation, and a clear perception of the justice of his cause. By a uniform and dispassionate course, he attained extensive influence in the councils of his country, and attracted the admiration and esteem of his compatriots. It has been said of him that he seldom failed to procure the adoption of any measure which he advocated, and which he considered essential to the public good."

"The legacy which Mr. Sherman has bequeathed to his countrymen," says Professor Edwards, "is indeed invaluable. The Romans never ceased to mention with inexpressible gratitude, the heroism, magnanimity, contentment, disinterestedness, and noble public services of him who was called from the plough to the dictator's chair. His example was a light to all subsequent ages. So among the galaxy of great men who shine along the paths of our past history, we can scarcely refer to one, save Washington, whose glory will be more steady and unfading than that of Roger Sherman."

As a theologian, Mr. Sherman was capable of conversing on the most important subjects, with reputation to himself, and improvement to others. As an avowed professor of religion, he did not hesitate to appear openly in its defence, and maintain the doctrines of Christianity. Among his correspondents were Dr. Jonathan Edwards, Dr. Hopkins, Dr. Trumbull, President Dickinson, President Witherspoon, Dr. Johnson of Connecticut, and many others.

HYDER ALI.

No name is more celebrated in the history of India, particularly as regards the connection of that country with Great Britain, than that of Hyder Ali, king of Mysore. The fall of the Mogul empire, and its consequent want of a supreme head, had emboldened many a daring adventurer to muster around him a lawless band, composed of men who were at once soldiers and robbers, and, by their aid, to seize upon some petty state, and set himself up as an independent sovereign. Hyder Ali was one of these chiefs. He was a Mohammedan of obscure origin, who had served under one of the native princes, in alliance with the French, at the famous siege of Trichinopoly, and had enriched himself by a regular system of robbery, pursued on a most extensive scale. Besides pursuing the regular predatory excursions of such freebooters who constantly plundered the villages, and seized convoys of horses, grain and cattle, Hyder's men would carry off money, plate, jewels, and wearing apparel, and even stop the women and children, to despoil them of the ornaments they wore.

After some time Hyder Ali found himself at the head of an army, consisting of fifteen hundred horse, and five thousand foot-soldiers, with a train of elephants, camels, and all other warlike appendages of a great chief. Flushed with success, his ambition was directed toward the possession of a kingdom. The state on which he had fixed his views, was Mysore, a territory of Southern India, possessing a delightful climate, and in a high state of cultivation.

It would be tedious to trace the various artifices by which the bold adventurer reached the point at which he aimed; suffice it to say, that, after meeting with some reverses, he succeeded in deposing the raja, and seating himself on the throne of Mysore. He then began to extend his territories on every side, by invading and conquering those of the neighboring princes, and augmented his treasures by the plunder of their capitals.

The rapid successes of Hyder Ali naturally alarmed the other potentates, especially Nizam Ali, soubahdar of the Deccan, and Madoo Rao, the ruler of the Mahratta country. Nizam Ali had succeeded to the sovereignty of the Deccan in 1760, and, after some warfare with the English, had made peace with them, on condition that they should pay him an annual tribute for a certain territory along the Coromandel coast, and also furnish him with additional forces when required; and as he claimed the performance of this promise when about to join Madoo Rao, in an invasion of Mysore, the English became involved in a war with Hyder Ali, although they had no direct quarrel with that prince. They were not unwilling, it is true, to seize the opportunity of checking the progress of a rising power, which might interfere with their own views of supremacy over India; and in 1767, hostilities were commenced. Tippoo Saib, son of Hyder Ali, then a youth not more than seventeen years of age, highly distinguished himself by his courage and ability during this war, which was carried on, with varied success, for about two years, the advantage being generally on the side of Hyder Ali, who had bribed the Mahrattas to withdraw from the confederacy, and was thus relieved from the most numerous portion of his foes. At length, seeing no immediate prospect of success, Nizam Ali and his English allies concluded a treaty of peace with Hyder, by the terms of which all parties were placed, with regard to possession, in exactly the same position in which they had stood before the war.

No sooner had peace been restored to Mysore, than a new invasion of the Mahrattas exposed the people of that country to fresh scenes of misery and desolation. Madoo Rao conducted the army in person, and took several strong fortresses, but in the midst of the campaign, was obliged, in consequence of ill-health, to give up the command, and return to Poona; nor was he ever again



Portrait of Hyder Ali.—From a Miniature painted in India.

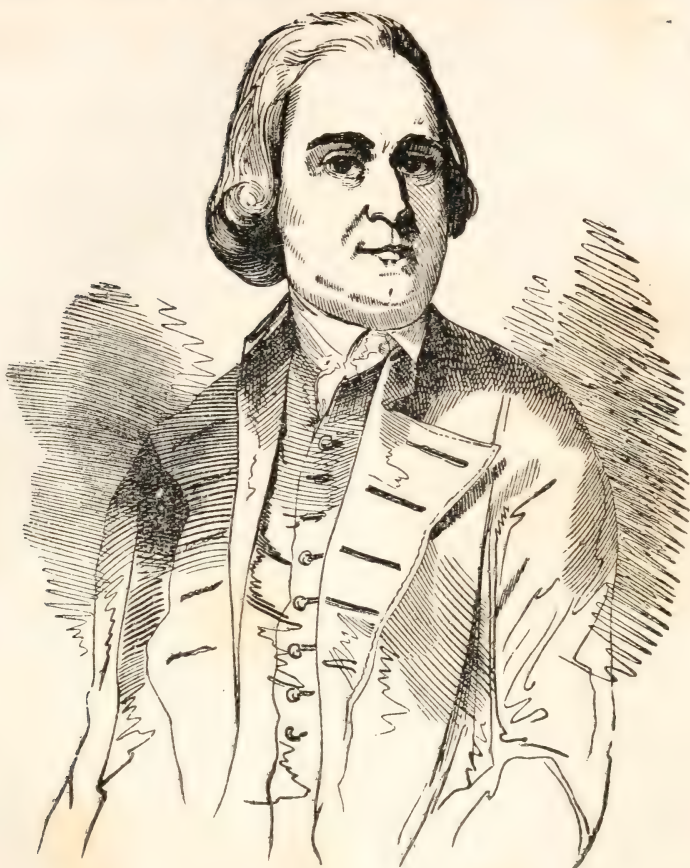
well enough to take an active part in the wars. In the war still carried on in Mysore, his place was supplied by Trimbuck Rao, a great chief, who was so successful, that Hyder Ali was eventually obliged to purchase peace by the cession of a great part of his northern dominions, and the payment of eight hundred thousand dollars.

Soon after the conclusion of this treaty, Madoo Rao died, and his uncle, Ragoba, was proclaimed peishwa; but his accession was opposed by a certain party in the state; and Hyder Ali took advantage of the confusion that ensued, to make an effort for the recovery of the districts wrested from him during the late war. Ragoba hastened to defend the conquered territories, but being soon recalled by the news of a violent insurrection, he made peace with Hyder, by restoring some of the provinces he had lost.

Hyder Ali being dissatisfied with the conduct of the English, who had neglected to fulfil several articles of the treaty concluded at the end of the last war, resolved to renew the war as soon as he was in a condition to do so; and in the month of June, 1780, departed from his capital, Seringapatam, to join his army assembled on the frontiers, which exhibited the finest show of native troops ever seen in the south of India, amounting to more than eighty thousand men, and provided with above one hundred pieces of cannon. At the head of this host, he entered the Carnatic, and marched direct toward Madras, where his approach was first announced by columns of smoke and flame, that were seen ascending from the burning villages. The English were in the utmost consternation, for it was impossible for them to bring their troops together, which were dispersed over the country in small detachments, and the principal roads were occupied by the enemy. Two divisions, however, succeeded, though with great difficulty, in joining each other, and when united, formed a little army of between three and four thousand men, Europeans and sepoys: but these were furiously attacked by the Mysoreans, and all cut to pieces, with the exception of about two hundred, who were made prisoners, and conveyed to Seringapatam, where they were thrown into dungeons, in chains, and scarcely allowed sufficient of the coarsest food to keep them alive.

After the defeat of the British troops, Hyder laid siege to the city of Arcot, which was surrendered, and he then invested several of the strongest towns in the Carnatic. Warren Hastings, who was then governor-general, on hearing of the successes of Hyder Ali, sent Sir Eyre Coote, a veteran officer, of the highest military reputation, to stop the career of the invaders, whose ravages had converted the country into a desert; so that when the British forces marched from Madras, under General Coote, they were obliged to carry with them all kinds of supplies, as though they were about to cross the desert of Arabia, instead of marching through an inhabited country. The expedition was, on the whole, successful. Hyder Ali and his warlike son were forced to abandon the places they were besieging, and at length sustained a total defeat at Cuddalore, where the two armies came to a regular engagement.

The war with Hyder Ali, who had received aid from the French, was still prosecuted, with varied fortune, until his death, which happened in the year 1782, he being then above eighty years of age. Although a usurper, he had not been an oppressive ruler. He had not interfered with the customs of the Hindus; he had left the Bramins in possession of their lands; and the revenues which he had exacted from the farmers were so light, as to leave them the means of living in comfort. During his wars in the Carnatic, Hyder made captive great numbers of the lowest class of field laborers, many of whom were slaves, and formed them into colonies in the most uncultivated districts of his dominions, where lands were assigned them, and orders given by that judicious prince that they should not be called by the name which marked them as men of inferior caste, but that they should be termed cultivators.



SAMUEL ADAMS.

SAMUEL ADAMS, whose name is truly dear to every American, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, September 22, 1722. His ancestors were among the early settlers, and his father for many years, a representative in the Massachusetts house of assembly. In the year 1740, Mr. Adams graduated at Harvard college. After leaving college, he embarked in mercantile life, but was unfortunate. He now entered into public life, where he was uniformly distinguished for his opposition to every encroachment on the liberties of the people. He took a firm and decided stand against the stamp-act and its antecedent kindred schemes to tax the colonies. As early as 1763, he boldly expressed his sentiments relative to the rights and privileges of the colonists; and in some instructions which he drew up for the guidance of the Boston members of the general assembly, in that year, he denied the right of parliament to tax the colonies without their consent—denied the supremacy of parliament, and suggested a union of all the colonies, as necessary for their protection against British aggressions. It is asserted that this was the first public expression of such sentiments in America, and that they were the spark that kindled the flame upon the altar of freedom here.

In 1765, Mr. Adams was chosen a representative for Boston, in the general assembly, and became early distinguished in that body, for his intelligence and activity. He became a leader of the opposition to the royal governor, and treated with disdain the efforts made to silence him, although the offers proffered would have placed him in affluent circumstances. He was chosen clerk of the house of representatives; and he originated the "Massachusetts Circular," which proposed a colonial congress to be held in New York, and which was held there in 1766.

During the excitement of the *Boston massacre*, he was among the most active; and chiefly through his influence, and the boldness with which he demanded the removal of the troops from Boston, was that object effected.

Mr. Adams, and Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, almost simultaneously proposed the system of committees of correspondence, which proved such a mighty engine in bringing about a union of sentiment among the several colonies previous to the bursting out of the revolution. This, and other bold movements on his part, caused him to be selected as an object of ministerial vengeance, and when Governor Gage issued his proclamation, offering pardon to all who would return to their allegiance, Samuel Adams and John Hancock were alone accepted. This greatly increased their popularity, and fired the people with indignation. Adams was among those who secretly matured the plan of proposing a general congress, and appointing delegates thereto, in spite of the opposition of Governor Gage. Mr. Adams was one of the five delegates appointed, and he took his seat in that body on the fifth of September, 1774. He continued an active member of Congress until 1781, and was among those who joyfully affixed their signatures to the Declaration of Independence.

Mr. Adams retired from Congress in 1781, but not from public life. He was a member of the convention to form a constitution for Massachusetts, and was on the committee who draughted it. He was successively a member of the senate of that commonwealth, its president, lieutenant-governor, and finally governor. To the latter office he was annually elected, until the infirmities of age obliged him to retire from active life. He expired on the third day of October, 1803, in the eighty-second year of his age.

No man was more intrepid and dauntless, when encompassed by dangers, or more calm and unmoved amid public disasters, and adverse fortune. His bold and daring conduct and language subjected him to great personal hazards. Had any fatal event occurred to our country, by which she had fallen in her struggle for liberty, Samuel Adams would have been the first victim of ministerial vengeance. His blood would have been first shed as a sacrifice on the altar of tyranny, for the noble magnanimity and independence, with which he defended the cause of freedom. But such was his firmness, that he probably would have met death with as much composure, as he regarded it with unconcern.

Mr. Adams's eloquence was of a peculiar character. His language was pure, concise, and impressive. He was more logical than figurative. His arguments were addressed rather to the understanding, than to the feelings; yet he always engaged the deepest attention of his audience. On ordinary occasions, there was nothing remarkable in his speeches; but on great questions, when his own feelings were interested, he would combine everything great in oratory. In the language of an elegant writer, the great qualities of his mind were fully displayed, in proportion as the field for their exertion was extended; and the energy of his language was not inferior to the depth of his mind. It was an eloquence admirably adapted to the age in which he flourished, and exactly calculated to attain the object of his pursuit. It may well be described in the language of the poet, "thoughts which breathe, and words which burn"

SIR JOSHUA REYNOLDS.

THIS celebrated English historical and portrait painter was born at Plympton, near Plymouth, in Devonshire, July 16, 1723. He was the son of the Rev. Samuel Reynolds, who, intending his son for the church, bestowed upon him a suitable education. He removed to Oxford, where he took his degrees in the arts; but having a great taste for drawing, he resolved to make painting his profession, and accordingly was placed under Hudson the portrait-painter.

About 1749, Reynolds went to Italy, in company with the Honorable Mr. Keppel, his early friend and patron, where he studied the works of the most illustrious masters for three years. On his return from Italy, he hired a large house in Newport street, London; and the first specimen he gave of his abilities is said to have been a boy's head in a turban, richly painted in the style of Rembrandt, which so attracted Hudson's attention, that he called every day to see it in its progress; and perceiving at last no trace of his own manner left, he exclaimed, "By G—d, Reynolds, you don't paint so well as when you left England!" A whole-length portrait of Admiral Keppel, which he painted soon after, drew on him universal admiration, and he was at once considered to be at the head of the profession in portrait-painting. This, indeed, when the state of the art at that time is adverted to, can not be deemed any great praise; and the man who could unite to a dignified resemblance of the head an endless variety of spirited and graceful attitudes, picturesque backgrounds, novel and striking effects of light and shade, with a voluptuous richness and harmony of color, was certainly entitled to much more. It must not, however, be understood that his performances at that time possessed those excellences to the degree in which we find them in his later works: for he was one of the few whose efforts to improve ended but with his life; who had been heard to say that he never began a picture without a determination to make it his best; and whose unceasing progress almost justified the maxim he was so fond of repeating continually, that "nothing is denied to well-directed industry."

Having thus early, to speak in the strong language of Johnson, borne down all opposition before him, left emulation panting behind, and obtained, as the summit of human felicity, possession of the first place, little remains to be said of Reynolds, till his style, and some of his particular works, come under consideration, but that he was one whom the most rare and enviable prosperity could not spoil; his whole life, to the time of the failure of his sight, being passed in the diligent and unwearied pursuit of his art, at once his business and his pleasure, uninterrupted by sickness or misfortune. The hours necessary for relaxation were chiefly spent in the company of his numerous friends and acquaintances: these were invited about him as well on system as from inclination; for, finding his professional pursuits debarred him the common and regular modes of study, he adopted this as an agreeable method of gaining at the same time knowledge and amusement: hence at his table, for above thirty years, were occasionally assembled all the taste, talents, and genius, of the three kingdoms—men who were remarkable for their attainments in literature or the arts, for their exertions in the pulpit or at the bar, in the senate or the field.

As an author (a character in which he appears scarcely less eminent than in that of a painter), we probably owe his exertions to his situation in the Royal Academy of Arts, in the institution of which, in the year 1769, he had a principal share; and, being unquestionably of the first rank in his profession, he was unanimously elected the president. This circumstance certainly did not a little contribute to the increase and establishment of his fame; nor did the

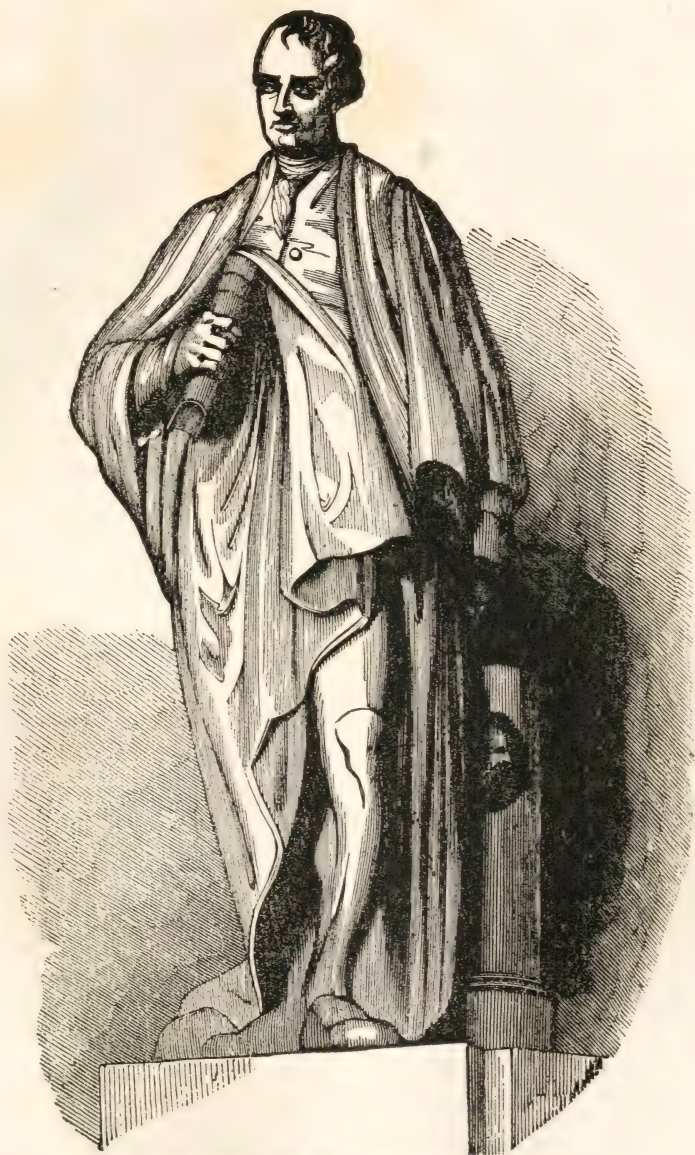
academy derive less credit from the admirable works which he continued yearly to exhibit in it, consisting chiefly of portraits; though he rarely suffered a season to pass in which he did not bring forward one or more fine specimens of his powers in history.

From the years 1769 to 1792, inclusive, it appears that Reynolds sent no less than two hundred and forty-four pictures to the exhibition. Soon after his election, the king (George III.), to give dignity to the new institution, conferred on him the honor of knighthood. His assiduity and love for his profession left him little leisure, and less inclination, to make excursions into the country. Occasionally, however, he spent a few days at his villa on Richmond-hill, and visited at different times the seats of the noblemen and gentlemen of his acquaintance, whence he was always glad to return to the practice of his profession, and the enjoyment of that intellectual society, of which, like his friend Johnson, he justly considered London as the headquarters.

In the summer of 1781, with a view of examining critically the works of the celebrated masters of the Flemish and Dutch schools, Reynolds made the tour of Holland and Flanders. An account of this journey, written by himself, containing much excellent criticism on the works of Rubens, Vandyk, Rembrandt, &c., in the churches and different collections at Antwerp, Brussels, Ghent, the Dusseldorp gallery, and Amsterdam, was published some years since with the rest of his works. The tour closes with a masterly-drawn character of Rubens.

In 1783, in consequence of the emperor of Germany's suppression of some religious houses, Reynolds again visited Flanders, purchased some pictures by Rubens, and devoted several more days to the contemplation and further investigation of the performances of that great man. He is said to have remarked that Rubens's pictures, on his first visit, seemed more vividly colored than they did on the second, which he attributed to his having held his note-book in his hand on the former occasion, for the purpose of writing down his observations, supposing that the pictures derived an additional warmth and splendor of coloring from the circumstance of his eye passing to them from the cold, white paper; but as he also remarked, on his return the first time, that his own pictures wanted force, and it was observed that he painted with more depth and brilliancy of color afterward, is it not more probable that the difference of the impression he felt from the sight of Rubens's pictures was owing to his having accustomed his eye in the meantime to a greater force and richness in his own works? In the same year (1783), Mr. Mason's translation of Du Fresnoy's "Art of Painting" was published, with notes subjoined by Sir J. Reynolds, consisting chiefly of practical observations, and explanations of the rules laid down by the author of the poem; and in the year following, on the death of Ramsay, he was sworn principal painter in ordinary to his majesty, in which office he continued to his death.

For a very long period, as has been before remarked, Sir Joshua had enjoyed an almost uninterrupted state of good health (to which the custom of standing to paint, introduced by him, may be supposed in some degree to have contributed), except that in the year 1782 he was for a short time afflicted by a paralytic stroke. A few weeks, however, perfectly restored him, and he suffered no inconvenience from it afterward. But in July, 1789, while he was painting the portrait of Lady Beauchamp, he found his sight so much affected, that it was with difficulty he could proceed in his work; and, notwithstanding every assistance that could be procured, he was in a few months totally deprived of the use of his left eye. After some struggles, he determined, lest his remaining eye should suffer, to paint no more; and though he was thus deprived of a constant employment and amusement, he retained his usual spirits, and partook of the society of his friends with apparently the same pleasure he had been accustomed to do: and was still amused by reading or hearing others read to



Statue of Sir Joshua Reynolds, in Westminster Abbey.

him. In October, 1791, however, his spirits began to fail him, and he became dejected from an apprehension that an inflamed tumor which arose over the eye that was lost might occasion the destruction of the other also. This dejection might, nevertheless, in a great degree, be the effect of a much more dangerous malady with which he began to be afflicted; but which, as he could neither explain to his physicians the nature, nor point out the seat of it, many believed to be imaginary, and he was counselled to shake it off by exertion. About a fortnight only before his death, his liver was discovered to be diseased; and the inordinate growth of it, as appeared after his decease, had incommoded all the functions of life. Of this disorder, which he bore with great fortitude, he died, after a confinement of nearly three months, at his house in Leicester-fields, on Thursday evening, February 23, 1792, aged sixty-nine.

In his stature, Sir Joshua Reynolds was rather under the middle size; of a florid complexion; roundish, blunt features; and a lively, pleasing aspect; not corpulent, though somewhat inclined to it, but extremely active. With manners uncommonly polished and agreeable, he possessed a constant flow of spirits, which rendered him at all times a most desirable companion; always ready to be amused and to contribute to the amusement of others, and anxious to receive information on every subject that presented itself; and although he had been deaf almost from the time of his return from Italy, yet by the aid of an ear-trumpet he was enabled to partake of the conversation of his friends with great facility and convenience. On Saturday, the third of March, his remains were interred in the crypt of St. Paul's cathedral, near the tomb of Sir Christopher Wren, with every honor that could be shown to worth and genius by an enlightened nation; a great number of the most distinguished persons attending the funeral ceremony—his pall being supported by three dukes, two marquises, and five other noblemen.

In many respects, both as a man and a painter, Sir Joshua Reynolds can not be too much praised, studied, and imitated, by every one who wishes to attain the like eminence. His incessant industry, never wearied into despondency by miscarriage, or elated into neglect by success, has already been noticed; in addition to which it may be further said that, when the *man* went abroad, he did not leave the *painter* at home: he practised his profession everywhere else as well as in his painting-room. All nature and all art were his academy; and his mind was constantly awake, ever on the wing, comprehensive, vigorous, discriminating, and retentive. With taste to perceive all the varieties of the picturesque, judgment to select, and skill to combine what would serve his purpose, few have ever been empowered by nature to do more from the funds of his own genius, and none ever endeavored more to take advantage of the labors of others, in making a splendid and useful collection on which no expense was spared. His house was filled to the remotest corner with casts from the antique, pictures, statues, drawings, and prints, by the various masters of all the different schools and nations. Those he looked upon as his library, with this advantage, that they decorated at the same time that they instructed. They claimed his attention—objects at once of amusement, of study, and of competition.

Beautiful and seducing as his style undoubtedly was, it can not be recommended in so unreserved a manner as his industry in both study and practice. Coloring was evidently his first excellence, to which all others were more or less sacrificed; and though in splendor and brilliancy he was exceeded by Rubens and Paul Veronese, in force and depth by Titian and Rembrandt, and in freshness and truth by Velasquez and Vandyk, yet perhaps he possessed a more exquisite combination of all these qualities, and that peculiarly his own, than is to be found in the works of any of those celebrated masters. In history he does not appear to possess much fertility of invention; as, whenever he has



The Fortune-Teller — From a Painting by Sir Joshua Reynolds.

introduced a striking figure, it may commonly be traced and found to belong to some of his predecessors ; and, at the utmost, he can only be allowed the merit of skilful adaptation : but in portrait, the variety of his attitudes and backgrounds is unequalled by any painter, ancient or modern, and that variety is generally accompanied with grace in the turn of his figures and dignity in the airs of his heads. Drawing, as he himself candidly confesses, was the part of the art in which he was most defective ; and from a desire perhaps to hide this defect, with an over-solicitude to produce a superabundant richness of effect, he was too frequently tempted to fritter his lights, and cut up his composition, particularly if it happened to be large, into many parts. In his smaller histories, however, where he had only a few heads to manage, and in portraits, his composition, both with regard to adaptation and contrast of lines, and the disposition of the masses of light and shadow, is often very excellent. In execution, though he wanted the firmness and breadth necessary to the highest style of the art, the spirit and sweetness of his touch were admirable, and would have been more remarkable had he been more a master of drawing : but not being readily able to determine his forms, he was obliged to go over and over the same part, till some of the vivacity of his handling was frequently lost : his labor, however, was never wholly lost, for he added to the force and harmony of his picture by every repetition.

ADAM SMITH.

ADAM SMITH, the celebrated author of the "Wealth of Nations," was born in Kirkaldy, county of Fife, in Scotland, June 5, 1723. His father, who was comptroller of the customs, died a few months before he came into the world. He was of delicate health from his infancy ; and in consequence, although he was put to school in his native town, he mixed but little in the out-of-door sports and exercises of his more robust companions ; but during the hours he was not in school, occupied himself for the most part with his books at home. In 1737 he was sent by his mother to the university of Glasgow, and three years after thence to Baliol College, Oxford, on one of several exhibitions, or yearly allowances to which Glasgow students are entitled while pursuing their studies at that college. The intention of Smith's relations, was, that he should enter into orders, with the view of becoming a clergyman in the Scotch episcopal church. After remaining at Oxford, however, for above eight years, he gave up all thoughts of this distinction, and, returning to Scotland, introduced himself to public notice by delivering a course of lectures on rhetoric and the belles lettres in Edinburgh. The ability with which he acquitted himself in this attempt brought him the notice and friendship of Lord Kames and several other distinguished literary men who then resided in the Scottish capital ; and in 1751 he was, through their influence, and his own reputation, elected to the professorship of logic in the university of Glasgow, which he exchanged in the year following, for the chair of moral philosophy. He held this situation for about twelve years, during which time the eloquence and originality of his lectures rendered him the chief ornament of the seminary, and attracted crowds of students to his class from all quarters. His mode of lecturing was not to write out what he intended to say, but, after making himself completely master of his subject, to trust to the moment for expression ; and in this way, we are told, he never failed to keep up the eager attention of his audience to the discussion of even the most difficult and abstract parts of his subject.

In 1759 he gave to the world his first publication, the "Theory of Moral



Portrait of Adam Smith.

Sentiments." It was an exposition of the leading metaphysical views which he had been in the habit of addressing to his class, the design being to show that all our feelings and judgments with regard to the morality of different actions, arise from, and are regulated by, the principle of sympathy, which accordingly he makes the fundamental characteristic of our mental constitution, and that without which we could not exist as social beings. This work, when it first appeared, was more applauded for its ingenuity, and the subtlety of thought and beauty of expression by which many parts of it were marked, than for the conclusiveness of its reasonings; but still it brought to its author a large accession of admiration and fame. In 1763 Smith was induced to resign his professorship for the purpose of accompanying the duke of Buccleugh on a tour to France, and other parts of Europe. He was absent from England about three years, the greater part of which was spent in Paris, where he made the acquaintance of all the distinguished literary men of that capital. After his return home in 1766, he retired to his native town of Kirkcaldy, and taking up his abode in the house of his mother, spent the next ten years in seclusion and hard study. The result was the publication, in the year 1776, of his celebrated work, "Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations."

They still, we believe, show at Kirkcaldy the room in Smith's house in which the "Wealth of Nations" was written, with the impression left upon the wall by the head of the philosopher as he used to lean back in his chair, buried in profound thought. Though but a simple memorial, it is one of which his townsmen are proud. In 1778, through the interest of the duke of Buccleugh, Smith was appointed to the lucrative office of commissioner of the customs, in consequence of which he removed with his mother to Edinburgh, and there he spent the remainder of his life in comfort and affluence.

He died on the 8th of July, 1790, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.



WILLIAM MOULTRIE.

WILLIAM MOULTRIE, major-general of the United States army during the Revolution, was born in the year 1725. With his early history we are entirely unacquainted. About the year 1761, however, when our frontiers were continually suffering under Indian aggressions and difficulties, he was the captain of a company of provincials of South Carolina, who proceeded against the Cherokees.

Soon after the first meeting of the provincial Congress, when our relations with Great Britain were of that unpromising nature which required us to place ourselves on the defensive, two regiments were ordered to be raised in South Carolina, of five hundred men each, with which Moultrie was in some way connected. On the 17th of June, 1775, the same day on which the battle of Bunker's hill took place, he was promoted to a colonelship in one of these regiments. He directly entered upon active duty, and early in the following autumn a small company of his soldiers took possession of Fort Johnson. About this time he constructed a flag which is said to have been the first American flag displayed in South Carolina; it was large, of a blue color, with a crescent in the dexter corner. This was probably suggested to Moultrie by the dress of the state troops, which was then blue, with silver crescents in their caps.

Early in December of 1775, the English were blockading Charleston harbor; with the intention of expelling the British men-of-war from their too familiar situation, Colonel Moultrie with between two and three hundred soldiers and volunteers, embarked at Charleston in the darkness of the night of the 19th, for Hadrell's point, where he proceeded to erect a battery. By daylight the works were complete, and the cannons mounted. The British were surprised in the morning to observe the threatening attitude of the intrepid colonel, and becoming alarmed they immediately weighed anchor and left the cove and Sullivan's island under the control of the American batteries. In the spring of the next year a fortification was erected upon Sullivan's island, of a size sufficient to contain a thousand men; and Colonel Moultrie was ordered to that post. It

was at this time that the famous expedition under the united sapience of the English commanders, was fitting out at New York against Charleston. The expedition proceeded in its notable scheme, but they found the brave defender of Charleston equal to their united force. The action which attended this attack is described by Colonel Moultrie himself, in his "Memoirs of the American Revolution," which he wrote at the close of the war. But the prescribed limits of this sketch will not permit a detailed account of the defence. Suffice it to say, that after a prolonged attack, and incessant firing upon the fleet for ten hours, the British commander was obliged to give up the contest, and withdraw his ships-of-war beyond the reach of the American guns.

Colonel Moultrie, and Lieutenant-Colonel Motte, soon after this action, received two standards which were presented to them by the lady of Major Elliott. At the skirmishes at Savannah, whither Colonel Moultrie had been despatched on the retreat of the English from Sullivan's island, one of these standards were lost, and the other would have been taken but for the brave Sergeant Jasper who lost his life in his endeavors to preserve the standard. When the British took possession of Charleston, however, that same standard was taken. On the 16th of September, 1776, Colonel Moultrie received the commission of brigadier-general of the United States army, the colonial troops having been taken into the continental establishment. In February, 1779, with a few hundred militia under him, he met the enemy near Beaufort, South Carolina, and defeated him, although the numbers of the enemy were much superior to his own. At this time the southern department of the American army was under the command of General Lincoln. Upon the departure of that general for Georgia, General Moultrie remained in South Carolina with upward of twelve hundred men to watch the movements of the British. In May, the English general, Provost, marched toward Charleston with four thousand troops. Retiring as the other advanced, General Moultrie in a few days arrived at Charleston, having demolished the bridges on his route, and otherwise materially obstructed the progress of the enemy. Unfortunately General Moultrie lost more than half his troops by desertion; and when Provost appeared before the town, the governor and council were so greatly alarmed that they requested a parley. The magnanimous offer of the British was protection to such as desired it, and imprisonment for the rest of the inhabitants; this offer was rejected, and the Americans proposed to remain neutral during the war. The gallant army of Moultrie were so greatly opposed to this sort of submission, that it was with great difficulty an officer could be found who was willing to take the message to the British camp.

The reply of Provost, was, that his business was with General Moultrie. "Upon this," says General Moultrie, "the governor and council looked very grave and steadfastly at each other, and on me, not knowing what I would say. After a little pause, I said, 'Gentlemen, you see how the matter stands; the point is this; am I to deliver you up prisoners-of-war or not?' Some replied 'yes.' I then answered, I am determined not to deliver you up prisoners-of-war; we will fight it out;' and I immediately ordered the flag to be waved from the gate, which was the signal agreed upon, should the conference be at end." The enemy decamped next morning, to the surprise of all; the secret, however, was, that they had ascertained that General Lincoln was in their rear, with four thousand strong. Early in the year 1780, General Moultrie again distinguished himself by his foresight and bravery at the siege of Charleston. He was enabled to delay and resist the approaches of the enemy for several weeks, when at length the obstinacy and perseverance of the enemy obliged the citizens to capitulate. General Moultrie was taken prisoner and detained on parole, until February, 1782, when he was exchanged for General Burgoyne. He afterward attained the rank of major-general. The British soon

after evacuated Charleston, and we do not hear that General Moultrie was engaged in any other military affair of note.

General Moultrie was elected governor of South Carolina in 1775, and in 1794-'5. He died on the 27th of September, 1799, at the age of seventy-four.

As a soldier, General Moultrie was deliberate, determined, and courageous. He labored with zeal for his country, and endured hardships and losses with extraordinary fortitude. As a private citizen, he was as devoted to the happiness and well-being of society, as he was a noble-hearted, brave, and patriotic man.

JAMES WOLFE.

GENERAL JAMES WOLFE, son of Lieutenant-General Edward Wolfe, was born at Westerham, county of Kent, England, January, 1726. Having early embraced the military profession, he distinguished himself at the battle of La Feldt, and was present afterward at every engagement during the war, and everywhere gathered fresh laurels by his valor, coolness, and judgment. At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, instead of resigning himself to indolence and pleasure, he devoted himself more assiduously to military labors, and when lieutenant-colonel of Kingsley's regiment, he introduced such order and discipline in the corps, that the gallant conduct of the soldiers in the plains of Minden, is proverbial to this day. These great talents did not long remain in obscurity. When Mr. Pitt was placed at the head of affairs, the genius of Wolfe was called forth to execute his gigantic plans. Though the meditated attack on Rochfort was abandoned, the fall of Louisburgh displayed to the admiration of the nation the abilities of their favorite general, who was immediately after selected, 1759, for the command of the expedition against Quebec. Three expeditions were prepared, which were all ultimately to unite. General Amherst was to march from New York, seize the forts of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and sailing along Lake Champlain, and down the Richelieu into the St. Lawrence, join General Wolfe, who by that time would have arrived before Quebec with a fleet and army. The third expedition was to take Fort Niagara, afterward, sailing across Lake Ontario, and down the Cataraqui, take Montreal, and then, if necessary, co-operate with Amherst and Wolfe. The plan was a bold one, but liable to many interruptions which could not be foreseen, or at least prevented. Each armament succeeded, in spite of many difficulties, in accomplishing its separate objects; but Wolfe was successful in the capture of Quebec without the co-operation of the others.

The fleet containing Wolfe and his army arrived at the island of Orleans without obstruction. Montcalm, the French commander-in-chief, a brave officer, immediately encamped with a numerous army, composed of regular troops, militia, and Indians, along the shore to the banks of the Montmorenci, a river which literally *falls* into the St. Lawrence, about seven miles below Quebec. He rightly judged that Wolfe would try to land below, and not above the city. Meantime fire-ships were sent floating down the river, and nothing could have saved the English fleet and transports, if the sailors, with daring courage, had not boarded the burning vessels, and towed them on shore, left them to blaze away harmless till they burned to the water's edge. The attempt was made twice, and each time failed in the same manner. Wolfe landed, and tried to cross the Montmorenci above the falls, in the face of the French army, but was driven back, with a loss of five hundred men, and many brave officers.

This defeat mortified the young hero so severely as to bring on a fever; but

The Death of Gen. Wolfe.—From a Painting by Benjamin West.



though he was greatly reduced by his illness, his anxiety to retrieve his reverse doubtless strung his mind to that pitch of determination which enabled him to accomplish his object. The English took possession of Point Levi, opposite Quebec; and the fleet sailed past the city without damage. Montcalm deemed himself perfectly secure above the city, never imagining that Wolfe would effect a landing. He therefore only placed a numerous line of sentinels along the summit of the steep and rocky banks. Time was now becoming precious to Wolfe; it was the beginning of the month of September, and a Canadian winter was not far distant. After anxious searching, he selected a little indentation of the bank, rather more than a mile above the city, still called Wolfe's cove. Here he proposed to land the troops, in silence and secrecy, during the night, and making them clamber up a narrow path, that at present, though well beaten, is difficult of ascent in broad daylight, to form them in order of battle on the table-land above, called the plains of Abraham. On the 13th of September, an hour after midnight, the first division of the troops landed, one of the first being Wolfe himself. "I scarcely think," he whispered to an officer near him, "that there is any possibility of getting up, "but you must do your endeavor." The highlanders and light infantry scaled the path, dislodged a serjeant's guard at the top, and the news was carried to the astonished Montcalm, that the English were on the plains of Abraham.

He brought down his army, and the battle began about nine in the morning. Shortly after its commencement, Wolfe was shot in the wrist; he wrapped a handkerchief round it, and continued giving orders. Advancing at the head of the grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, another shot entered his breast. He leaned upon an officer, who sat down for the purpose, and death was stealing over him. A cry of "They run, they run!" startled him: "Who run?" he asked, with eagerness. "The French." "What! do they run already?—then I die happy." He expired almost immediately afterward.

Montcalm was mortally wounded by the only gun which the English had been able to drag up the heights: he died in Quebec next day. Quebec capitulated on the 17th; and the English fleet left the river, a strong garrison being placed in the city. During the winter the garrison suffered severely from the scurvy; and in the spring of 1760 the French came down from Montreal, and occupied the plains of Abraham. General Murray risked an engagement, was defeated and driven into Quebec. But for the opportune arrival of an English fleet in the river, the city might have been re-occupied by its original owners, and Wolfe's victory rendered what battles often are—a mere waste of human life.

The remains of Wolfe were carried to England, and buried with becoming pomp in Westminster abbey, where a splendid monument was erected by the nation to his honor. His death forms the subject of a beautiful painting by West, from which the design of the engraving on the previous page has been taken.

To the great abilities of the general, to steadiness, strength, and activity of mind, Wolfe united the milder virtues of life, sincerity and candor, a quick sense of honor, of justice, and public liberty. While he bore the meed of superiority in constitutional courage, in penetration and cool judgment, and in unshaken presence of mind, he was equally admired and respected for beneficence and charity, and the estimation of the great was accompanied by the love of the soldiery, and the gratitude of the poor.

JAMES BOWDOIN.

JAMES BOWDOIN, one of the greatest philosophers and one of the most distinguished men of the mother of new England states, Massachusetts, was born in Boston, in the year 1726. His grandfather was a native of Rochelle, in France, of a respectable and honorable Huguenot family. Soon after the edict of Nantz (which had passed in 1598, in favor of the protestants) was repealed in 1685, and persecutions raged against them with great severity, the grandfather left France, and landed at Casco bay, near Portland, with his family. The father of Mr. Bowdoin was with him, then about twenty years old. The grandfather spelt his name Baudouin, as appears by one of his letters, which was formerly in possession of the writer. The history and sufferings of the French protestants are well known. They were persecuted with even greater severity than English dissenters were in Great Britain. On the revocation of the edict of Nantz, many thousands were butchered by their unfeeling enemies in faith. Dexter, Sigourney, Brimmer, Laurens, Boudinot, Jay, Huger, and others, left France and came to America at this period of the persecution. Before the edict of Nantz, in 1598, and after 1572, seventy thousand protestants were slaughtered for refusing submission to the papal power.

From Casco the elder Bowdoin soon removed to Boston, and there took up his permanent abode. He devoted himself to mercantile pursuits, and acquired a good estate. His son, the father of the subject of the present sketch, was held in high esteem, and was appointed one of the governor's council. He had two sons, James and William, to whom he left a large inheritance at his decease.

Mr. Bowdoin was educated at Harvard college, and received the honors of that university in 1745, at the age of eighteen. While a member of the institution, he was not distinguished by that rare brilliancy of genius which attracts special notice; but he was, even at that early age, remarkable for discernment, application, and good sense. Correct moral habits were also formed by him in early life, so that, when he came into possession of a large patrimonial estate, he was not corrupted nor led astray into the paths of dissipation or extravagance. In his youth he courted the muses occasionally, and some of his poetical compositions have been preserved; but he did not devote much time to such pursuits. He early studied ethics, natural philosophy, jurisprudence, and politics. At the age of twenty-seven or twenty-eight, he was elected a member of the general court of Massachusetts from Boston; and at this time he corresponded with Professor Winthrop of the university, with Franklin, Otis, Pratt, Mayhew, and Cooper—with the first two on philosophical subjects, and with the others on theology and politics, which even in 1750 engrossed the attention of the enlightened friends of civil liberty.

In 1757, Mr. Bowdoin was transferred to the executive council, and continued in that station and in the house of representatives till the war of the Revolution. He was disapproved, when chosen by the general court into the council, by Governor Bernard and Governor Hutchinson, on several occasions, for his firm and inflexible opposition to the arbitrary measures of the British ministry, which the royal governors were instructed to support and enforce. Afterward, Hutchinson consented to his election into the council, believing his opposition to the crown would be less injurious in that body than in the house of representatives. That statesman was compelled to bear witness to the zeal and decision of Mr. Bowdoin in the cause of liberty, and acknowledged that he was the ablest man at the council-board. The volume of "Massachusetts State Papers" contains several resolves and reports of the council, and answers



Portrait of James Bowdoin.

to the governor's speeches of that period, well known to have been prepared by him. "His heart was warm, and his tongue and pen were employed in the service of his country."

During this period, as leisure from public duties permitted, Mr. Bowdoin devoted himself to literary and philosophical pursuits. He had a good private library, and his correspondence was extensive with the learned men of his time.

In 1774, Mr. Bowdoin was appointed one of the five delegates from Massachusetts, to attend a continental congress in Philadelphia; but his health was then so delicate, that he was unable to bear the fatigues of the journey. The following year, however, after the battle of Concord, and the crisis had arrived, we find him true to the liberties of the country. He was chosen president of the executive council of Massachusetts at that period, when the authority of Governor Gage and his council was denied, and a house of representatives and council were appointed to make laws and to exercise the powers of government. When a convention was formed in 1780 to prepare a civil constitution in Massachusetts, Mr. Bowdoin was elected the president—his patriotism, intelligence, and discretion, pointing him out for that important station. The same year, and chiefly through his influence, the Academy of Arts and Sciences was established in Boston, of which he was unanimously chosen president, and he presided over this learned body till his death. In 1785, he was elected governor of the commonwealth; and again for the year 1786. It was his lot to be chief magistrate when the insurrection took place, headed by Daniel Shays. On that critical occasion he conducted with great firmness and moderation; and the crisis demanded the exercise of these political virtues. The insurrection was put down with very little bloodshed, and even that was provoked by the rashness of the insurgents.

While Mr. Bowdoin was in the gubernatorial chair, the debt of the state was immense: he did much to provide for its payment, and to restore the public credit. He also, in 1785, and again in 1786, recommended the enlarging of the powers of Congress, for the purpose of regulating commerce, collecting a revenue, and paying off the debt of the United States; and his recommendation no doubt led to the general convention, in 1787, for amending the articles of the confederation, though a distinct proposition was also made by the assembly of Virginia, in 1786, for that object. When President Washington made a tour through the New England states in 1789, and visited Boston, Mr. Bowdoin showed him great attention, and appeared highly gratified at the opportunity of manifesting his respect and admiration of his exalted character. It was the opinion of those who well knew Washington and Bowdoin, that they possessed similar virtues and qualities to entitle them to the high regard and gratitude of our favored republic. Mr. Bowdoin furnished several articles for the volumes of the learned academy of which he was president; the chief was that on light, in which he advocated the theory of Newton. He left a handsome legacy and his valuable library to the institution. He was a member of the Royal Societies of London and Dublin; and received the honorary degree of doctor of laws from the University of Edinburgh. To all his other honors we may justly add that derived from a public profession of the faith and an exemplary display of the virtues of Christianity. His death occurred in 1790, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.



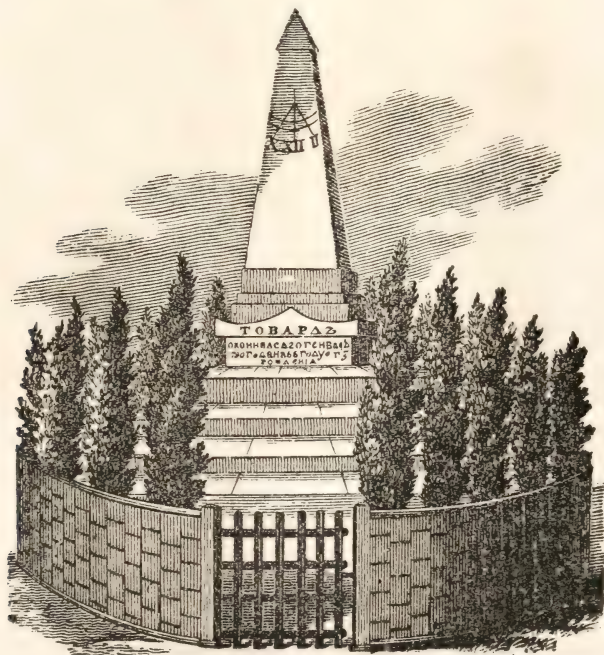
JOHN HOWARD.

JOHN HOWARD, the celebrated philanthropist, was born at Hackney, in England, in 1726. He was apprenticed to a grocer, but his constitution being delicate, and having an aversion to trade, he purchased his indentures and went abroad. On his return he lodged with a widow lady, whom he afterward married. After the decease of Mrs. Howard, who lived only about three years, he, in 1756, embarked for Lisbon, in order to view the effects of the recent earthquake, but on the passage the ship was taken and carried to France. The hardships he suffered and witnessed during his imprisonment first roused his attention to the subject of his future labors.

On being released, Mr. Howard returned to England, and retired to a villa in the New Forest, county of Kent; and in 1758 he married a second wife, who died in childbed in 1765, leaving him one son. He at this time resided at Cardington, near Bedford, where he indulged the benevolence of his disposition by continually assisting and ameliorating the condition of the poor. In

1773, he served the office of sheriff, which, as he declared, "brought the distress of the prisoners more immediately under his notice," and led him to form the design of visiting the jails through England, in order to devise means for alleviating the miseries of the prisoners. Having done so, he laid the result of his inquiries before the house of commons, for which he received a vote of thanks.

Mr. Howard next made a tour through the principal parts of Europe, and published his "State of the Prisons," with a view to render them both more humane and more efficacious. A new subject now engaged his attention, namely, the management of lazarettos, and the means of preventing the communication of the plague and other contagious diseases. In this he encountered every danger that can be conceived; and having become personally acquainted with the subject, in 1789 he published "An Account of the principal Lazarettos in Europe, with Papers relative to the Plague," &c. Actively pursuing this salutary and benevolent object, Mr. Howard took up his residence at the town of Cherson, a Russian settlement on the Black sea. A malignant fever prevailed there, and having been prompted by humanity to visit one of the sufferers, he caught the infection, and died, January 20, 1790, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. He was buried, at his own request, at the villa of M. Dauphiné, about eight miles to the north of Cherson. The spot is sandy, with a scanty sprinkling of vegetation, and is only distinguishable from the rest of the steppe by two brick pyramids, and a few graves in which the neighboring peasantry have interred their dead—attracted, no doubt, by the report of the singular worth of the foreign friend whose ashes are here deposited. One of the pyramids is erected over the dust of the philanthropist, and the other over the grave of a French gentleman who revered his memory, and wished to be buried by his side.



Monument over the Grave of Howard

The genuine humility of Howard prompted him to choose this sequestered spot, and it was his anxious desire that neither monument nor inscription, but simply a sun-dial, should be placed over his grave. This cenotaph is erected at a short distance from the Russian cemetery; and close to the public road. It is built of a compact, white freestone, found at some distance, and is about thirty feet in height, surrounded by a wall of the same stone, seven feet high, by two hundred in circumference. Within this wall, in which is a beautiful cast-iron gate, a fine row of Lombardy poplars has been planted, which, when fully grown, will greatly adorn the monument. On the pedestal is a Russian inscription of the following purport:—

“Died, January 28, 1790, aged 65, HOWARD.”

The sun-dial is represented near the summit of the pillar, but with this remarkable circumstance—that the only divisions of time it exhibits are the hours from ten to two, as if to intimate that a considerable portion of the morning of life is past ere we enter on the discharge of its active duties; and that, with many, the performance of them is closed even at an early hour after the meridian of their days.



JOHN HUNTER.

JOHN HUNTER, one of the greatest anatomists of modern times, was born July 14, 1728, at Kilbride, county of Lanark, Scotland. The early life of this remarkable man formed a strange introduction to the scientific eminence to which he eventually attained. His father having died when he was about ten years old, he seems scarcely to have received any further school education; but was allowed to spend his time as he liked, till at last he was bound apprentice to a cabinet-maker in Glasgow, whom one of his sisters had married.

After some time, however, this person failed—an event which at the time was probably regarded as a severe family misfortune ; but it turned out to be a blessing in disguise.

Hunter's brother, William, who was ten years his elder, had, after overcoming the difficulties arising from the expenses of a medical education at the university of Edinburgh, shortly before this settled in London, and was already fast bringing himself into notice. To him John applied when he found himself thrown out of any means of obtaining a living. He requested his brother, who was then delivering a course of lectures on anatomy, to take him as an assistant in his dissecting-room—and intimated that if this proposal was not accepted, he would enlist as a soldier. His brother, in reply, invited him to come to London. This was in September, 1748, when he was in his twenty-first year. Never, perhaps, did any learner make a more rapid progress than John Hunter did in his new study. Even his first attempt in the art of dissection, indicated a genius for the pursuit ; and such was the success which rewarded his ardent and persevering efforts to improve himself, that after about a year he was considered by his brother fully competent to take the management of a class of his own. His subsequent rise entirely corresponded to this promising commencement. It was not long before he took his place in the front rank of his profession, and had at his command its highest honors and emoluments. The science of anatomy, however, continued to be his favorite study ; and in this he acquired his greatest glory. Not only the chief portion of his time, but nearly the whole of his professional gains, were devoted to the cultivation of this branch of knowledge.

One of the principal methods to which he had recourse in order to throw light upon the structure of the human frame, was to compare it with those of the various inferior animals. Of these he had formed a large collection at his villa at Earl's Court, Brompton ; “and it was to him,” says Sir Everard Home, “a favorite amusement in his walks to attend to their actions and their habits, and to make them familiar with him. The fiercer animals were those to which he was most partial, and he had several of the bull kind from different parts of the world. Among these was a beautiful small bull he had received from the queen, with which he used to wrestle in play, and entertain himself with its exertions in its own defence. In one of these conflicts the bull overpowered him, and got him down ; and had not one of the servants accidentally come by, and frightened the animal away, this frolic would probably have cost him his life.” The same writer relates that on another occasion, “two leopards that were kept chained in an outhouse, had broken from their confinement, and got into the yard among some dogs, which they immediately attacked. The howling thus produced alarmed the whole neighborhood. Mr. Hunter ran into the yard to see what was the matter, and found one of them getting up the wall to make his escape, and the other surrounded by the dogs. He immediately laid hold of them both, and carried them back to their den ; but as soon as they were secured, and he had time to reflect upon the risk of his own situation, he was so much affected that he was in danger of fainting.”

Mr. Hunter's valuable museum of anatomical preparations was purchased by parliament after his death for £15,000 ; and it is now deposited in the hall belonging to the Royal College of Surgeons, in Lincoln's-Inn Fields, where the public are admitted to view it on the order of any member of the society. This distinguished person died suddenly, on the 16th of October, 1793, in the sixty-sixth year of his age.



JAMES COOK.

JAMES COOK was born October 27, 1728, at the village of Marton, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, England. His parents were of the class of laborers. All the education he received amounted only to English reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic. He was then, at the age of thirteen, bound apprentice to a small shopkeeper in the neighboring town of Snaith, which is on the seacoast. Here he became so smitten with the love of a sea-life, that he could not rest till his wish was gratified; and his master was at last induced to let him off, when he entered himself as one of the crew of a vessel engaged in the coal-trade. In this humble and laborious line of life he continued till the breaking out of the war with France in 1755. He then entered the navy, as a common seaman, of course.

But now the native superiority of the man began to assert itself; and in four years he rose to be master of the *Mercury*, one of the ships belonging to an expedition sent against Quebec. Thus by far the most formidable of the difficulties were overcome which he had to encounter in emerging from obscurity; he was now on the direct road to preferment, and in a position in which his good conduct and perseverance were sure to meet with their reward. While stationed in this command on the coast of North America, he greatly distinguished himself by both his skill and intrepidity as a seaman; and he also made use of his leisure to rectify the defects of his original education by studying mathematics and astronomy. He eventually made himself in this way one of the most scientific naval officers of that time.

His reputation rose accordingly; and in 1768, when the British government resolved to send out the *Endeavor* to the South sea to obtain an observation of the approaching transit of Venus, Cook was selected to command the ship

He conducted this expedition with admirable ability, and so entirely to the public satisfaction, that, having returned home in 1771, he was the following year appointed to proceed again to the same regions with two ships, the *Resolution* and the *Adventure*, with the object of settling the long-disputed question as to the existence of a southern polar continent. On this voyage, in which he circumnavigated the world, he was absent nearly three years; and notwithstanding all the vicissitudes of climate and weather, and the other dangers which he had encountered, he brought home, with the exception of one, every man of the crew he had taken out with him. He communicated to the Royal Society an account of the methods he had adopted on this occasion for preserving the health of his men; and that body, in return, elected him into their number, and voted him the Copley gold medal as a testimony of their sense of his merits. To crown his achievement, Captain Cook wrote the history of this expedition himself, and wrote it admirably.

In little more than a year after his return, he sailed on his third and last voyage of discovery; the principal object of which was to ascertain the practicability of a passage between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans along the northern coast of America. After having been out on this expedition for nearly three years, and having explored a vast extent of sea and coast, the great circumnavigator put in at the island of Owhyhee, one of the Sandwich group, on his return home; and he was there killed in a sudden and accidental rencontre with some of the natives on the 14th of February, 1779, being treacherously attacked from behind while on shore, and felled to the earth with a club in the hands of a powerful chief. For this act the savages were severely chastised. The late Admiral Burney, who was present on this occasion, mentions, in a note to his "*History of Discoveries in the South Sea*," an anecdote which deserves to be remembered. Of the party of marines, by whom Captain Cook was accompanied when he met his death, four were killed along with him; "and in the hasty retreat made," says Burney, "after the boats had put off, one man still remained on shore, who could not swim. His officer, Lieutenant (now Colonel) Molesworth Phillips, of the marines, though himself wounded at the time, seeing his situation, jumped out of the boat, swam back to the shore, and brought him off safe." The author proceeds to compare this conduct of Lieutenant Phillips with a similar act performed in 1624 by a Dutch captain, Cornelys de Witte, who, when a boat's crew which he commanded was surprised in a port on the coast of America by an ambuscade of Spaniards, and driven to sea after four of them had been killed, seeing one of his men left behind on the beach, boldly returned to the shore in the face of the enemy, and took him into his boat! "This was an act of generosity," observes the French translator of the account of the Dutch voyage, "worth a wound which he received in his side, and of which he was afterward cured."

The news of the death of Cook was received by his countrymen, and it may be said by the world, with the feeling that one of the great men of the age was lost; and both in his own and in foreign nations public honors were liberally paid to his memory. In the half century of busy and enterprising exertion in every field of activity which has elapsed since his death, no newer name in the same department has yet eclipsed the lustre of his; and with reference to the peculiar character of his fame, as contrasted with that of other renowned seamen which Britain has produced, it has been well and justly remarked that while numberless have been her naval heroes who have sought and gained reputation at the cannon's mouth, and amid the din of war, it has been the lot of Cook to derive celebrity from less imposing but not less important exploits, as they tended to promote the intercourse of distant nations, and increase the stock of useful science.

Captain Cook was accompanied on his first voyage of discovery by the emi-



Statue of Sir Joseph Banks.

nent naturalist, Sir JOSEPH BANKS, a view of whose statue, by Chantrey, in the British Museum, we give above. The likeness is said to be admirable, and the calm repose and dignified simplicity of the figure class it among the happiest efforts of this celebrated sculptor. Sir Joseph was the son of W. Banks, Esq., of Revesby abbey, in Lincolnshire, England, where he was born in 1743. He was an enthusiastic student of natural history, and was for many years president of the Royal Society. He wrote but little, and, excepting papers in scientific periodicals, published only one small work, a treatise on the "Blight, Mildew, or Rust, in Corn." He died in 1820, aged seventy-seven.

The following engraving is a faithful likeness of OMAI, a native of one of the Friendly islands, who acted as interpreter to Captain Cook in his second voyage round the world. His natural quickness and his fidelity rendered him of considerable use to the great navigator in his intercourse with the natives of the South seas. Omai was carried by Cook to England, where he was treated with much kindness, and introduced into the best society. The ease and even elegance of his manners was an object of surprise; but almost all the uncivilized people of that part of the world, and more especially the New-Zealanders, have exhibited the same natural respect for the opinions and feelings of others which is the foundation of real politeness. Dr. Johnson speaks of Omai as showing the deportment of a well-bred gentleman.

Omai was not a person of consequence, that is a chief, in his own country, where the distinctions of society are all-important. When Captain Cook, whom he had so long accompanied, left him, during his last voyage, at Huaheine, with every provision for his comfort, he earnestly begged to return to England. It was nothing that a grant of land was made to him at the interposition of his English friends—that a house was built and a garden planted for his use. He wept bitter tears; for he was naturally afraid that his new riches would make him an object of hatred to his countrymen. He took back many valuable possessions, and some knowledge. But he was originally one of the common people; and he soon saw that, without rank, he could obtain no authority. He

forgot this when he was away from the people with whom he was to end his days ; but he seemed to feel that he should be insecure when his protector, Cook, had left their shores. He divided his presents with the chiefs, and the great navigator threatened them with his vengeance if Omai was molested. The reluctance of this man to return to his original condition was principally derived from these considerations, which were to him of a strictly personal nature. The habits, amid which the natives of those islands are born, may be modified by an intercourse with civilized man, but they can not be eradicated. The following lines are extracted from Cowper's beautiful poem on the different states of society, wherein he apostrophizes this "gentle savage," drawn forth "from thy native bowers, to show thee here with what superior skill we can abuse the gifts of Providence, and squander life :"—

"Methinks I see thee straying on the beach,
And asking of the surge, that bathes thy foot,
If ever it has washed our distant shore.
I see thee weep, and thine are honest tears,
A patriot's for his country : thou art sad
At thought of her forlorn and abject state,
From which no power of thine can raise her up."



Portrait of Omai.—Painted by Sir Joshua Reynolds.



EDMUND BURKE.

THIS illustrious writer and orator was born at Dublin, Ireland, January 1, 1730, and was a younger son of an attorney in extensive practice in that city. Being of delicate health from his infancy, he was taught to read at home by his mother; and was then sent to reside with his grandfather, at his country-seat in the county of Cork. He was put to school at the neighboring village, and here he began the study of Latin. From his earliest years he was a devoted reader. "While we were at play," his elder brother Richard long afterward declared, "he was always at work." In his twelfth year, having been brought back from his grandfather's, he was sent to the academy of Ballitore, in the county of Carlow, conducted (and, as it appears, with great ability and on an admirable system) by the Shackletons, a quaker family. He remained here till 1744, when he proceeded to Trinity college, Dublin, of which he was entered a pensioner. Here he took his degree of A. B. in 1748, and that of A. M. in 1751. Meanwhile, being destined for the English bar, he had been enrolled as a student of the Middle Temple in 1747, and he proceeded to London to keep his terms early in 1750.

It has been commonly said of Burke, sometimes by way of reproach and sometimes by way of commendation, that he set out in life a mere penniless adventurer. But this is quite a mistake. His father was possessed of very considerable property, and he was never subjected while pursuing his studies to the necessity of seeking a maintenance by his own exertions. The class of students in which he was placed at college was that next to the highest, and his necessary expenses there were seven hundred and fifty dollars per annum. After he commenced the study of the law, his father allowed him an annuity of one thousand dollars. And it is ascertained that, in one way or other, the sums he derived from his family in the course of his life did not amount to less

than one hundred thousand dollars ! He is by no means, therefore, to be reckoned among those persons who have had unusual difficulties to contend with in the commencement of their career.

Burke seems to have soon become tired of the law. In 1752 or 1753 he offered himself as a candidate for the professorship of logic in the university of Glasgow, but was unsuccessful, a Mr. James Clow obtaining the appointment. His thoughts, however, were now entirely turned to literature and politics. Soon after this he appears to have begun to write in the newspapers and other periodical works. His first separate and avowed production, however, was his "Vindication of Natural Society," which was published in 1756. It is an ironical imitation of Lord Bolingbroke, whose style and manner of thinking are so happily mimicked, that many, when it first appeared, believed it to be a serious argument from his lordship's pen. It was followed in a few months by the celebrated "Inquiry into the Origin of our Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful." This work the author is said to have begun when he was nineteen, and to have kept by him for nearly seven years before he published it. It immediately introduced him into general notice, and to the acquaintance of many of the most distinguished literary men of the day. Soon after this he married.

For the next two years, Burke appears to have written an account of the "European Settlements in America," in two volumes, published anonymously in 1757 ; an "Abridgment of the History of England, from the Roman Invasion to the Reign of King John ;" and the first volume of "Dodsley's Annual Register," a work which he continued to superintend for many years.

It was in 1759 that he was made known by Lord Charlemont to Mr. William Gerard Hamilton (commonly called "single-speech Hamilton"), who, on being appointed, in 1761, secretary to the lord-lieutenant, took Burke with him to Ireland, in the capacity of his assistant. This formed the introduction of the latter to public life. In 1765, on the accession to power of the marquis of Rockingham, he was appointed by that minister his private secretary, and brought into parliament for the borough of Wendover.

From this time the life of Burke belongs to the general history of the British empire, and involves too extended a catalogue of events to be related, even in the most abridged form, within the limits to which we are confined. All our readers have probably heard of the extraordinary eminence to which he attained as a parliamentary orator. His opposition to the infatuated measures which led to and prolonged the contest with America ; his advocacy of the freedom of the press ; of an improved libel-law ; of catholic emancipation ; of economical reform ; of the abolition of the slave-trade ; his impeachment of Mr. Hastings, the governor-general of India ; and his denouncement of the French Revolution—are some of the most memorable passages of his political course. Among the works which he sent to the press may be mentioned his "Thoughts on the Causes of the present Discontents" (in the American colonies), published in 1770 ; his "Speech on American Taxation," delivered April 19, 1774 ; his "Speech on Economical Reform," delivered February 11, 1780 ; and his "Reflections on the French Revolution," published in November, 1790. It was the strictures contained in the latter work which provoked a reply from Thomas Paine, in the publication of "The Age of Reason," but for which it probably would never have been written. Mr. Burke died on the 8th of July, 1797, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

What Johnson termed "Burke's affluence of conversation," and which he so highly prized and frequently talked of, often proved, as may be supposed, a source of wonder and admiration to others. Few men of education but were impressed by it, and fewer still who had the opportunity of being in his society frequently, forgot the pleasure they had thus enjoyed. Of the powers of his

eloquence some notion may be formed from the account that is given of the effect produced by a passage in the speech which he delivered at the bar of the house of lords on opening the impeachment of Mr. Warren Hastings. He was describing the atrocities committed by Debi Singh, alleged to be one of the agents of the accused. "A convulsive sensation of horror, affright, and smothered execration," says Mr. Prior, "pervaded all the male part of his hearers, and audible sobbings and screams, attended with tears and faintings, the female. His own feelings were scarcely less overpowering: he dropped his head upon his hands, and for some minutes was unable to proceed; he recovered sufficiently to go on a little further, but being obliged to cease from speaking twice at short intervals, his royal highness the prince of Wales (afterward George IV.), to relieve him, at length moved the adjournment of the house." Alluding to the close of this day, the writer of the trial says: "In this part of his speech Mr. Burke's descriptions were more vivid, more harrowing, and more horrific, than human utterance, or either fact or fancy, perhaps, ever formed before. The agitation of most people was very apparent. Mrs. Sheridan was so overpowered, that she fainted; several others were as powerfully affected." Mrs. Siddons is said to have been one of the number. The testimony of the accused party himself is perhaps the strongest ever borne to the powers of any speaker of any country: "For half an hour," said Mr. Hastings, "I looked up at the orator in a reverie of wonder; and during that space I actually felt myself the most culpable man on earth;" adding, however, "but I recurred to my own bosom, and there found a conscientiousness that consoled me under all I heard and all I suffered."

OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH was born November 10, 1731, at Pallas, in the county of Longford, Ireland. His father, the Rev. Charles Goldsmith, sent him, at an early period, to Dublin college, and afterward, with a view to the medical profession, to the university of Edinburgh. At both these institutions, the eccentricity and carelessness of his conduct involved his friends in considerable difficulties; and he was removed to Leyden, at the expense of an uncle. After studying at the university for about a year, he left it, with only one clean shirt, and no money in his pocket, to make the tour of Europe on foot, and actually travelled in this way through Flanders, part of France, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. It was, probably, at Padua, that he took a medical degree, as he remained there six months; but his uncle dying while he was in Italy, he was again obliged to travel on foot to England, and reached London with a few pence in his pocket. A fellow-collegian, Dr. Sleigh, assisted him, and recommended him as an usher to a school. He remained but a short time in this situation, and then took lodgings in London, to follow the profession of an author. He conducted a department in the *Monthly Review*; wrote essays in the *Public Ledger* (since published under the title of the "Citizen of the World"), and a weekly pamphlet entitled the *Bee*. In 1765, he appeared as a poet, by the publication of his *Traveller*. The celebrity which this poem procured its author, was the cause of his introduction to the most eminent literary characters of the day. In 1766 appeared his well-known "Vicar of Wakefield," which at once secured merited applause. He also, about this time, composed one of his most successful works, a history of England, in a "Series of Letters from a Nobleman to his Son," which, for its elegance and liberal spirit was usually attributed to Lord Lyttelton. In 1768, his comedy of "The Good-Natured Man," was acted at Covent-Garden with but indifferent success, and he applied to the



Portrait of Oliver Goldsmith.

more certain labor of a Roman history, and a history of England. His poetical fame was greatly enhanced by the publication of his "Deserted Village," in 1770, for which he could hardly be induced to take the proffered recompense of £100, until satisfied that the profits of the bookseller could afford it. In 1772 he produced his comedy of "She Stoops to Conquer," which was completely successful. He did not, on this account, neglect compilation, and besides a Grecian history, he supplied the booksellers with a "History of the Earth," and "Animated Nature," composed out of Buffon, and others, in a manner which was both amusing and instructive, although the scientific acquirements of the author were not sufficient to guard against numerous errors. Such was the confidence he had acquired in his skill in compilation, that he was meditating a universal dictionary of the arts and sciences, when a despondency of mind, probably owing to the derangement of his circumstances, brought on a low fever, which terminated his life, in April, 1774. He was buried, with little attendance, in the Temple church, but a monument has been erected to his memory in Westminster abbey, with a Latin inscription, by Dr. Johnson.

Few of our writers possess a more abiding place in the hearts and memories of the people than Goldsmith, and few have drawn so entirely from their own personal observations and experiences. In the "Deserted Village," Auburn is Lissoy; every spot and every person is identified; and his beau-ideal of political economy is the cottier system, to which he had been accustomed, "where every rood of ground maintained its man." In the "Vicar of Wakefield," the vicar was his father; himself was George; the family economy was what he had seen; both his sisters were privately married under unpleasant circumstances, though not with such painful consequences as that of Olivia. Squire Thornhill is an Irish squire; Moses and his bargain of the green spectacles was founded on a misadventure of his father; Jenkinson's pedantic pretensions must have been witnessed by him in his literary career; and of the plot, the great merit is its truth and simplicity. The "Citizen of the World," and his Essays, rest mainly upon similar foundations. His plays are alike said to have been founded on personal events, and in "The Good-Natured Man," he no doubt drew from himself. His plays contain some wit, much humor, easy and natural dialogue, and sketchy but feeble delineations of real character; they are indeed rather farces of a superior kind, than regular comedies.

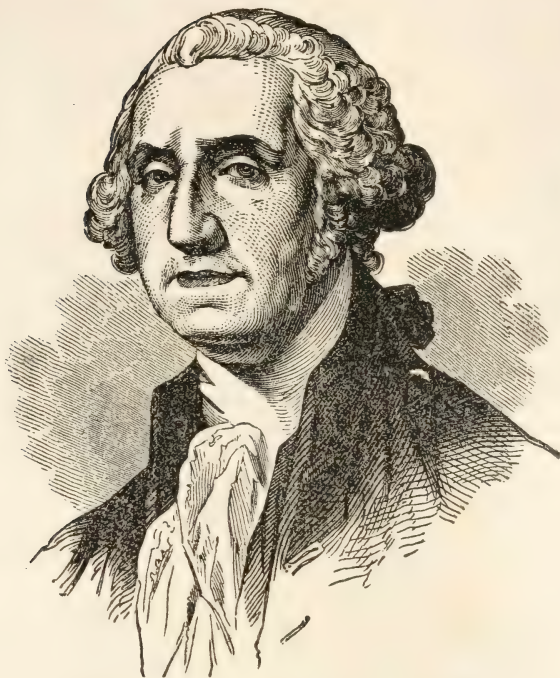


WILLIAM COWPER.

WILLIAM COWPER, a distinguished modern English poet, was born at Berkhamstead, Herts, November 26, 1731. His father, the rector of the parish, was the Rev. John Cowper, D. D., son of Justice Spencer Cowper. He received his early education at a school in his native county, whence he was removed to that of Westminster. Here he acquired a competent portion of classical knowledge; but, from the delicacy of his temperament, and the timid shyness of his disposition, he seems to have endured a species of martyrdom from the rudeness and tyranny of his more robust companions, and to have received, indelibly, the impressions that subsequently produced his *Tirocinium*, in which poem his dislike to the system of public education in England is very strongly stated. On leaving Westminster, he was articled, for three years, to an eminent attorney, during which time he appears to have paid very little attention to his profession; nor did he alter on this point after his entry at the Temple, in order to qualify himself for the honorable and lucrative place of clerk to the house of lords, which post his family interest had secured for him. While he resided in the Temple, he appears to have been rather gay and social in his intercourse, numbering among his companions, Lloyd, Churchill, Thornton, and Colman, all of whom had been his companions at Westminster school, and the two latter of whom he assisted with some papers in the *Connoisseur*. His natural disposition, however, remained timid and diffident, and his spirits so constitutionally infirm, that, when the time arrived for his assuming the post to which he had been destined, he was thrown into such an unaccountable terror at the idea of making his appearance before the assembled peerage, that he was not only obliged to resign the appointment, but was precipitated, by his agitation of spirits, into a state of great mental disorder. At this period, he was led into a deep consideration of his religious state; and, having imbibed the doctrine of election and reprobation in its most appalling rigor, he was led to a very dismal state of apprehension. We are told, "that the terror of eternal judgment overpowered and actually disordered his faculties; and he remained seven months in a continual expectation of being instantly plunged into eternal misery." In this shocking condition, confinement became necessary, and he was placed in a receptacle for lunatics, kept by the amiable and well-known Dr. Cotton, of St. Alban's. At length, his mind recovered a degree of serenity and he retired to Huntingdon, where he formed an acquaintance with the fam

ly of the Rev. Mr. Unwin, which ripened into the strictest intimacy. In 1773, he was again assailed by religious despondency, and endured a partial alienation of mind for some years, during which affliction he was highly indebted to the affectionate care of Mrs. Unwin. In 1778, he again recovered; in 1780, he was persuaded to translate some of the spiritual songs of the celebrated Madame Guion. In the same and the following year, he was also induced to prepare a volume of poems for the press, which was printed in 1782. This volume did not attract any great degree of public attention. The principal topics are, Error, Truth, Expostulation, Hope, Charity, Retirement, and Conversation; all of which are treated with originality, but, at the same time, with a portion of religious austerity, which, without some very striking recommendation, was not, at that time, of a nature to acquire popularity. They are in rhymed heroics; the style being rather strong than poetical, although never flat or insipid. A short time before the publication of this volume, Mr. Cowper became acquainted with Lady Austen, widow of Sir Robert Austen, who subsequently resided, for some time, at the parsonage-house at Olney. To the influence of this lady, the world is indebted for the exquisitely humorous ballad of John Gilpin, and the author's masterpiece, the Task. The latter admirable poem chiefly occupied his second volume, which was published in 1785, and rapidly secured universal admiration. The Task unites minute accuracy with great elegance and picturesque beauty; and, after Thomson, Cowper is probably the poet who has added most to the stock of natural imagery. The moral reflections in this poem are also exceedingly impressive, and its delineation of character abounds in genuine nature. His religious system too, although discoverable, is less gloomily exhibited in this than in his other productions. This volume also contained his *Tirocinium*—a piece strongly written, and abounding with striking observations, whatever may be thought of its decision against public education. About the year 1784, he began his version of Homer, which, after many impediments, appeared in July, 1791. This work possesses much exactness, as to sense, and is a more accurate representation of Homer than the version of Pope; but English blank verse can not sufficiently sustain the less poetical parts of Homer, and the general effect is bald and prosaic. Disappointed at the reception of this laborious work, he meditated a revision of it, as also the superintendence of an edition of Milton, and a new didactic poem, to be entitled the Four Ages; but, although he occasionally wrote a few verses, and revised his *Odyssey*, amid his glimmerings of reason, those and all other undertakings finally gave way to a relapse of his malady. His disorder extended, with little intermission, to the close of life; which, melancholy to relate, ended in a state of absolute despair. In 1794, a pension of three hundred pounds per annum, was granted him by the crown. In the beginning of 1800, this gifted, but afflicted man of genius, exhibited symptoms of dropsy, which carried him off on the 25th of April following.

“Sad as Cowper's story is, it is not altogether mournful,” says his admirable biographer, Southey; “he had never to complain of injustice, nor of injuries, nor even of neglect. Man had no part in bringing on his calamity, and to that very calamity which made him ‘leave the herd’ like ‘a stricken deer’ it was owing that the genius which had consecrated his name, which has made him the most popular poet of his age, and secures that popularity from fading away, was developed in retirement; it would have been blighted had he continued in the course for which he was trained up. He would not have found the way to fame unless he had missed the way to fortune. He might have been happier in his generation, but he could never have been so useful; with that generation his memory would have passed away, and he would have slept with his fathers, instead of living with those who are the glory of their country and the benefactors of their kind.”



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, the founder of American independence, was born on the 22d (11th O. S.) of February, 1732, in the county of Westmoreland, and commonwealth of Virginia. We trace back his genealogy to ancient times, in Purfield and Warton, in Lancashire, England; thence to Sir William Washington, of Leicestershire, eldest son of Lawrence Washington, of Sulgrave, Northamptonshire. Two of the youngest sons of Sir William, named John and Lawrence, immigrated to America, in 1657, and settled at Bridge's Creek, on the Potomac river, in the county of Northumberland. John died in 1697, leaving two sons, John and Augustine. The latter was married twice, and died in 1743, at the age of forty-nine, leaving several sons, of whom George was the eldest, by his second wife, Mary Ball.

Having lost his father at the age of ten years, George Washington received an English education, a term which excludes the acquisition of other languages than our own. His disposition for a military life disclosed itself at an early age, being only fifteen when he expressed a desire to enter the British navy, and the place of a midshipman was obtained for him. The interference of an affectionate mother suspended for a time the commencement of his military course. As his patrimonial estate was by no means considerable, his time was employed in youthful industry, and in the practice of his profession as a surveyor he had an opportunity of acquiring information respecting vacant lands, and of forming those opinions concerning their future value, which afterward greatly contributed to increase his private fortune. Such was the opinion entertained of his capacity, that, when about nineteen years of age, at a time when the militia were to be trained for actual service, he was appointed one of the

adjutants-general of Virginia, with the rank of major, the duties of which office, however, he performed but for a short time. The plan formed by France for connecting her extensive dominions in America by uniting Canada with Louisiana, now began to develop itself. Possession was taken by the French of a tract of country then deemed to be within the province of Virginia, and a line of posts was commenced from Canada to the Ohio river. The attention of Lieutenant-Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, was attracted by these movements, and he deemed it his duty to send a messenger to the French officers and demand, in the name of the king of Great Britain, that they should desist from the prosecution of designs which violated, as he thought, the treaties between the two crowns. Washington, at his own desire, was selected for this hazardous enterprise, and he engaged in it with alacrity, commencing his journey on the day which he was commissioned, in October, 1753. His course was through a dreary wilderness, inhabited for the most part, only by Indians, many of whom were hostile to the English. Conducted by guides over the Alleghany mountains, he suffered many hardships, and experienced many narrow escapes, but succeeded in reaching the French forts on the Alleghany branches of the Ohio. After delivering the lieutenant-governor's letter to St. Pierre, the French commanding officer, and receiving an answer, he returned, with infinite fatigue and much danger, from the hostile Indians, to Williamsburg. The manner in which he performed his duty on this occasion raised him much in public opinion, as well as in that of the lieutenant-governor. His journal, which extended to sixty days, was published by authority, and laid the foundation of Washington's fame, as it gave strong evidence of his sagacity, fortitude, and sound judgment.

The French commandant on the Ohio showed no disposition, in his answer sent by Washington, to withdraw his forces from that country, and the assembly of Virginia determined to authorize the governor and council to raise a regiment of three hundred men, to be sent to the frontier, for the purpose of maintaining the rights of Great Britain to the territory invaded by the French. The command of this regiment was given to Colonel Fry. Major Washington was appointed lieutenant-colonel, and obtained permission to march with two companies in advance of the other troops to the Great Meadows. In a dark rainy night, May 28, 1754, Colonel Washington surrounded and surprised a detachment of the French troops, a few miles west of the Great Meadows. The Americans fired about daybreak upon the French, who immediately surrendered. One man only escaped, and the commanding officer of the party, M. de Jumonville, and ten of his men were killed. Being soon after joined by the residue of the regiment, also by two companies of regulars, and Colonel Fry having died, the command devolved on Colonel Washington. This body of men, numbering less than four hundred, were, in the following month of July, attacked by about fifteen hundred French and Indians, at Fort Necessity, situated at the Great Meadows, and after a contest which lasted a whole day, the French offered terms of capitulation, and articles were signed, by which the fort was surrendered, and the garrison allowed the honors of war, and permitted to return unmolested into the inhabited parts of Virginia. Great credit was given to Colonel Washington by his countrymen, for the courage displayed on this occasion, and the legislature were so satisfied with the conduct of the party as to vote their thanks to him and the officers under his command. They also ordered three hundred pistoles to be distributed among the soldiers as a reward for their bravery.

Washington retired from the militia service, soon after this campaign, in consequence of an order from the war department in England, which put those of the same military rank in the royal army over the heads of those in the provincial forces. This order created great dissatisfaction in the colonies, and Wash

ington, while refusing to submit to the degradation required, declared that he would serve with pleasure when he should be enabled to do so without dishonor.

The unfortunate expedition of General Braddock followed in 1755. The general, being informed of the merit of Washington, invited him to enter into his family as a volunteer and aid-de-camp. This invitation Colonel Washington accepted, as he was desirous to make one campaign under an officer supposed to possess some knowledge in the art of war. The disastrous result of Braddock's expedition is well known. In the battle of the Monongahela, in which General Braddock was killed, Washington had two horses shot under him, and four balls passed through his coat, as his duty and situation exposed him to every danger. Such was the general confidence in his talents, that he may be said to have conducted the retreat.

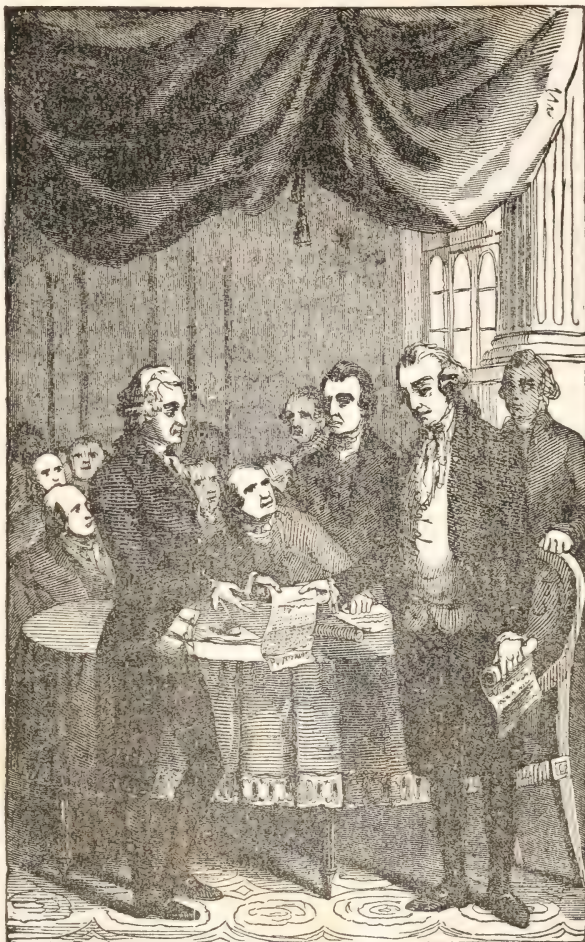
Colonel Washington was appointed, on his return home, by the legislature of the colony, commander-in-chief of all the forces raised and to be raised in Virginia, which appointment he accepted, and for about three years devoted his time to recruiting and organizing troops for the defence of the colony. In 1758, he commanded an expedition to Fort Du Quesne, which terminated successfully, and the French retired from the western frontier. At the close of this campaign Washington left the army, and was soon after married to Mrs. Martha Custis, a widow lady of Virginia, of amiable character and highly respectable connections. From the date of his marriage until the year 1774, a period of about sixteen years, Washington passed his time in the enjoyment of domestic life, and in the cultivation of his estate at his beautiful family-seat of



Residence of Washington, Mount Vernon.

Mount Vernon. He was occasionally called upon, however, to discharge duties as a magistrate of the county, or a member of the legislature. When the difficulties between Great Britain and her American colonies assumed a threatening aspect, in 1774, he was sent to the continental Congress as one of the delegates from Virginia. The following year, when an army of provincials had concentrated in Massachusetts, prepared for a contest with the troops of the mother-country, Washington was unanimously chosen by the continental Congress as the commander-in-chief, and took the command of the army in July, 1775.

From the moment of his taking upon himself this important office, he devoted the great powers of his mind to his favorite object, and by his prudence, his valor, and his presence of mind, he deserved and obtained the confidence and gratitude of his country, and finally triumphed over all opposition. The record



Washington receiving his Commission as Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army.

This commission was presented by John Hancock, in the presence of the Congress, and read as follows: "To GEORGE WASHINGTON, Esq.: We, reposing special trust and confidence in your patriotism, valor, conduct, and fidelity, do, by these presents, constitute and appoint you to be general and commander-in-chief of the army of the United Colonies, and of all the forces now raised, or to be raised by them, and of all others who shall voluntarily offer their services, and join the said army for the defence of American Liberty, and for repelling every hostile invasion thereof; and you are hereby vested with full power and authority to act as you shall think for the good and welfare of the service. And we do hereby strictly charge and require all officers and soldiers under your command, to be obedient to your orders, and diligent in the exercise of their several duties. And we do also enjoin and require you, to be careful in executing the great trust reposed in you, by causing strict discipline and order to be observed in the army, and that the soldiers be duly exercised, and provided with all convenient necessaries. And you are to regulate your conduct in every respect, by the rules and discipline of war (as here given you), and punctually to observe and follow such orders and directions, from time to time, as you shall receive from this, or a future Congress of these United Colonies, or committee of Congress. This commission is to continue in force, until revoked by this, or a future Congress.

"JOHN HANCOCK, President."

PHILADELPHIA, June 19, 1775.

of his services is the history of the whole war. He joined the army at Cambridge, in July, 1775. On the evacuation of Boston, in March, 1776, he proceeded to New York. The battle of Long Island was fought on the 27th of August, and the battle of White Plains on the 28th of October. On the 25th of December he crossed the Delaware, and soon gained the victories at Trenton and Princeton. The battle of Brandywine was fought, September 11, 1777; of Germantown, October 4th and of Monmouth, June 28, 1778. In 1779 and 1780, he continued in the vicinity of New York, and closed the important military operations of the war by the capture of Cornwallis, at Yorktown, on the 19th of October, 1781. When the independence of his country was established by the treaty of peace, Washington resigned his high office to Congress, and, followed by the applause and grateful admiration of his fellow-citizens, retired to private life, and to the enjoyment of those domestic scenes in which he delighted, and from which no views of ambition seem to have had the power to draw his affections. One of the greatest proofs of his patriotism was his refusal to receive any pecuniary compensation for his services as commander-in-chief during the eight years in which he had served his country in that capacity. When he accepted the appointment he announced to Congress his determination to decline payment for his services. He simply asked the reimbursement of his expenses, an exact account of which he kept and presented to the government, drawn up by his own hand at the close of the war. He was not long allowed to remain in retirement. To remedy the distress into which the country had been thrown by the war, and to organize a permanent plan of national government, a national convention of delegates from the several states was called, and met at Philadelphia in 1787. Having been chosen one of the delegates from Virginia, Washington was appointed to preside over the deliberations of the convention, and used his influence to cause the adoption of the constitution of the United States.

In 1789, he was called, by the unanimous voice of his fellow-citizens and of the electoral colleges, to act as president of the United States, and cheerfully lent his aid in organizing the new government. Amid all the difficulties which occurred at that period from differences of opinion among the people, many of whom were opposed to the measures proposed and adopted, the national government would probably have perished in its infancy, if it had not been for the wisdom and firmness of Washington. During his first term, the French revolution commenced, which convulsed the whole political world, and which tried most severely his moderation and prudence. His conduct was a model of firm and dignified moderation. Insults were offered to his authority by the minister of the French republic (Mr. Genet) and his adherents, in official papers, in anonymous libels, and tumultuous meetings. The law of nations was trampled under foot. No vexation could disturb the tranquillity of his mind, or make him deviate from the policy which his situation prescribed. During the whole course of that arduous struggle, his personal character gave that strength to a new magistracy which in other countries arises from ancient habits of obedience and respect. The authority of his virtue was more efficacious for the preservation of America than the legal powers of his office. During this turbulent period he was unanimously re-elected to the presidency, in 1793, for another term, although he had expressed a wish to retire. The nation was then nearly equally divided into two great political parties, who united only on the name of Washington. Throughout the whole course of his second presidency the danger of the Nation was great and imminent. The spirit of change, indeed, shook all nations. But in other countries it had to encounter ancient and strong established power; in America the government was new and weak; the people had scarcely time to recover from the effects of a recent civil war. Washington employed the horrors excited by the atrocities of the French rev-

olution for the best purposes ; to preserve the internal quiet of his country ; to assert the dignity and to maintain the rights of the commonwealth which he governed, against foreign enemies. He avoided war, without incurring the imputation of pusillanimity. He cherished the detestation of the best portion of his countrymen for anarchy, without weakening the spirit of liberty ; and he maintained the authority of the government without infringing on the rights of the states, or abridging the privileges of the people. He raised no hopes that he did not gratify ; he made no promises that he did not fulfil ; he exacted proper respect due to the high office he held, and rendered to others every courtesy belonging to his high station.

In September, 1796, having determined to retire from the presidency at the expiration of his second term in March following, he issued a farewell address to the people of the United States, which will remain as a permanent legacy to his countrymen through future generations, for its sentiments of patriotism and sound maxims of political sagacity. He remained at the seat of government until the inauguration of his successor, Mr. Adams, which occasion he honored with his presence, and immediately retired to Mount Vernon, to pass the remainder of his days in quiet retirement ; but when, in 1798, the United States armed by sea and land, in consequence of their difficulties with France, he consented to act as lieutenant-general of the army ; but was never afterward called upon to take the field, although he bore the commission until his death. On Thursday, the 12th of December, 1799, while riding over his farms he became exposed to a severe storm of rain, hail, and snow, with a sharp, piercing wind. He took a severe cold, and was seized with an inflammation in his throat, which became considerably worse the next day, and which terminated his life on Saturday, the 14th of the same month, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

He was buried with the honors due to the noble founder of a happy and prosperous republic. Throughout the United States, eulogies were pronounced upon his character, sermons were preached, or some mark of respect paid to his memory. It was not speaking extravagantly to say that a nation was in tears at his death.

"In the whole history of the world," says the Hon. R. C. Winthrop, in his oration at the laying of the corner-stone of the Washington National Monument, "it may be doubted whether any man can be found, who has exerted a more controlling influence over men and over events than George Washington. To what did he owe that influence ? How did he win, how did he wield, that magic power, that majestic authority, over the minds and hearts of his countrymen and of mankind ? In what did the power of Washington consist ? It was not the power of vast learning or varied acquirements. He made no pretensions to scholarship, and had no opportunity, for extensive reading. It was not the power of sparkling wit or glowing rhetoric. Though long associated with deliberative bodies, he never made a set speech in his life, nor mingled in a stormy debate. It was not the power of personal fascination. There was little about him of that gracious affability which sometimes lends such resistless attraction to men of commanding position. His august presence inspired more of awe than of affection, and his friends, numerous and devoted as they were, were bound to him by ties rather of respect than of love. It was not the power of a daring and desperate spirit of heroic adventure. He had no passion for mere exploits. He sought no 'bubble reputation in the cannon's mouth.' With a courage never questioned, and equal to every exigency, he had yet 'a wisdom which did guide his valor to act in safety.' It was the high moral elements of his character which imparted to it its preponderating force. His incorruptible honesty, his uncompromising truth, his devout reliance on God, the purity of his life, the scrupulousness of his conscience, the disinterestedness of his purposes,

his humanity, generosity, and justice—these were the ingredients which, blending harmoniously with solid information and sound judgment and a valor only equalled by his modesty, made up a character to which the world may be fearlessly challenged for a parallel.”

The tomb of Washington is a simple structure of stone, only the front of which is visible, the other parts being covered with the earth of a small sandhill which was excavated, and the surface of which was left covered with dwarf cedars and a few other trees with which it was naturally shaded. The whole is concealed from the view of the passer-by, by a neat and substantial stone wall of considerable height, with a gate, over which is a slab bearing this inscription: “WASHINGTON FAMILY.”

The surrounding scene is left nearly in the state of nature. The irregular surface of the ground and the numerous trees exclude the sight of every distant object; and there is nothing in view to disturb the mind, in the solemn and impressive reflections which naturally arise within it. Although the Potomac flows by at a short distance from the spot, and was in full view from near the door of the original tomb, every glimpse of it is shut out from this, and not a single sound intrudes to interrupt the solitude. Few visitors to the spot obtain an entrance into the tomb, or even through the gate. The stone coffin, which contains the ashes of the venerable occupant, is engraved with the arms of the United States, and the simple name of “WASHINGTON.”



Tomb of Washington, at Mount Vernon.



JOSEPH HAYDN.

JOSEPH HAYDN was born March 31, 1732, at Rohrau, a village in Austria. His father was a poor wheelwright, to which occupation he added that of parish sexton. Both he and his wife had a taste for music, and the first musical impressions which young Haydn received were from the little family concerts of his parents, when his mother sang and his father played on the harp, while he himself, with two pieces of wood, to represent a violin and bow, accompanied her voice. His first lessons in music were received from the village schoolmaster, who, while teaching him Latin, also taught him to play on the violin and other instruments, and to sing at the parish church. His fine voice attracting the notice of the chapel-master of St. Stephen's cathedral, Vienna, he took Haydn there, and placed him in the choir, where he remained eleven years. While in this situation, he had the good fortune to gain the favor of Porpora, an eminent Neapolitan composer, then at Vienna, from whom he received some valuable lessons. The Venetian ambassador, with whom Porpora resided, was so pleased with the young man's proficiency in singing, that he made him a small monthly allowance, and admitted him to the table of his secretaries. Haydn was now enabled to dress himself in a respectable suit of black, and was employed to play on the violin or organ, or to sing at different chapels in the vicinity. After spending the day in these fatiguing occupations, he generally spent the greater part of the night at his harpsichord.

Thus he lived till the age of nineteen, when he was dismissed from the choir of St. Stephen's, in consequence, it was said, of the breaking of his voice, but really of a boyish frolic he had committed in cutting off the skirt of a fellow-chorister's gown in the church. In this situation he found an asylum in the house of a poor periwig-maker of the name of Keller, who had been an admirer of his singing at the cathedral. Keller and his wife treated him with much kindness, and he continued, under their roof, to follow his musical pursuits. But their kindness, it would seem, was not quite disinterested. They had two daughters, for one of whom they thought a young musician of rising talent would be a tolerable match; and Haydn, in his utter simplicity and ignorance of the world, was easily persuaded into a promise of marriage, which he afterward honorably fulfilled. The connection, however, proved an unhappy one, owing to faults on both sides (she being too fond of monks and church shows, and he having formed a dishonorable connection with a female singer in Prince Esterhazy's orchestra), and they soon separated.

Haydn's first productions in musical composition were little pieces for the harpsichord. His first attempt at more elaborate composition was in 1752, in the music of an opera called "The Devil on Two Sticks." About this time also he entered on his brilliant career as a composer of instrumental music.

In 1758, Haydn was appointed second leader in Prince Esterhazy's orchestra. He was now placed in the most favorable situation for the full development of his powers, being at the head of a great orchestra, in easy circumstances, and wholly free from the cares and troubles of the world. From this time his life was regular and constantly employed. He rose early in the morning, dressed himself very neatly, and placed himself at a little table by the side of his pianoforte, where he remained with the interruption only of his meals. In the evening he attended rehearsals, or the opera, which was performed four times a week in the prince's palace. Occasionally he amused himself with hunting, and gave the rest of his hours of relaxation to the society of his friends.

Such was his life for thirty years, during which time he produced in rapid succession that prodigious variety of compositions which filled the world with his fame. Living in the utmost retirement, and seldom leaving the little town in Hungary which belonged to the Esterhazy family, he himself was perhaps the only musical man in Europe who was ignorant of the celebrity of Joseph Haydn. The first homage he received consisted of a commission from a Parisian amateur to compose a piece of vocal music, accompanied with some select passages of Lulli and Rameau to serve as models. He returned for answer, with sly simplicity, that he was Haydn, and not Lulli or Rameau; and that if music after the manner of those great composers was wanted, it should be asked of them or their pupils; but that, for himself, he unfortunately could write music only after the manner of Haydn.

In 1790, Mr. Salomon, who had undertaken to give concerts in London, made proposals to Haydn to assist in conducting these concerts, and to compose pieces for them; offering him about two hundred and fifty dollars for each concert. Haydn accepted the offer, and arrived in England at the age of fifty-nine. He remained in London about twelve months, during which time he composed some of the finest of his works.

Haydn again went to England in 1794, and in the following year he undertook his great work, "The Creation." While in London, he had been inspired with the most profound admiration for the music of Handel, and especially "The Messiah." He began this work in 1795, when he was sixty-three years of age, and finished it in the beginning of 1798, having been constantly employed upon it for more than two years. It was received with an enthusiasm which soon spread throughout all Europe. Two years after the appearance of "The Creation," Haydn composed another work, called "The Seasons," the words of which are taken from Thomson. It did not, however, produce the effect of "The Creation." Its subject is not so sublime, nor its beauties so obvious and striking. It is, nevertheless, a magnificent composition, and worthy of its immortal author.

"The Seasons" terminated Haydn's musical career. By the labors of his long life, he had acquired a moderate competency; and, after his last return from England, he purchased a small house and garden in one of the suburbs of Vienna, where he resided for the remaining years of his life. Soon after he had taken possession of his little home, he received a communication from the National Institute of France, informing him that he had been nominated an associate of that body; an honor by which he was deeply affected. He now began to sink rapidly under the pressure of age and infirmities. He seldom quitted his house and garden, and his feeble mind began to be haunted with the double fear of poverty and disease. The visits of his friends would rouse him, and, in conversing with them, he occasionally showed his former cheerfulness

and vivacity. When he was told that the French Institute, in 1805, supposing him to be dead, had performed a requiem for him, he said pleasantly, "If these kind gentlemen had given me notice of my death, I would have gone myself to beat the time for them!" But these gleams were brief and transient, and he sank into his usual state of torpor and depression. He died on the 31st of May, 1809, aged seventy-eight. He was privately interred in the suburb of Gumpendorff, in which he resided, Vienna being in the possession of the French; and the requiem of Mozart was performed for him in the Scotch church of the city.

M. DE MONTYON.

A PRIZE is publicly presented every year in France, by the highest learned body of that country, to the Frenchman who has acquired a just title to the distinction by the performance of some signal act of courage and devotion in the cause of humanity; or by establishing a useful institution, or discovering or perfecting means for ameliorating the condition of any class of society. It was instituted by M. de Montyon, a virtuous and benevolent man, who adopted this means of awarding, especially to persons of the humbler ranks of life, a more extensive degree of public approbation than they would otherwise have obtained. Wherever an example occurred of noble disinterestedness, of philanthropic devotion, performed without ostentation, it was the object of M. de Montyon to exhibit it in all its moral beauty to the admiration of his countrymen. There are perhaps differences in the character of the American people which render it inexpedient in this country to have recourse to the principle upon which M. de Montyon acted. Notwithstanding, however, the facility with which the generous sympathies of Americans are aroused, there are doubtless instances of persons who have displayed the most admirable qualities, whose sole reward is the secret encouragement of a good conscience, a recompense which exceeds all others in value; but in this country we would rather witness the spontaneous outburst of public approbation, though sometimes liable to be silent when it should be active, than rely upon an organized means acting with the certainty and regularity of a constituted body.

M. de Montyon passed the greater part of his life during a period in which, in France at least, it was scarcely believed that the poorer classes of society were capable of being actuated by any sentiments of an elevated nature; but he lived to see them restored to a more deserving position, an object which had always called forth his most active exertions. This excellent man was born at Paris, December 23d, 1733. In 1768, he was governor of one of the provinces into which France was then divided; and in this responsible situation, his administration was productive of benefits which procured for him the gratitude and respect of all classes, and particularly of the poor. He was removed from this sphere of usefulness to make way for the favorite of a minister. In 1789, before the revolution, without coming forward publicly, he gave a prize to the writer of the most useful work on manners. During the stormy period which succeeded, he lived an exile in England, dividing his income with his unfortunate countrymen without distinction. On his return to France he instituted several prizes, the perpetual maintenance of which he provided for by liberal endowments. During the last years of his life he devoted annually between three and four thousand dollars, to withdrawing from the pawnbroking establishments of the capital all articles on which sums under five francs had been advanced. It may be doubted whether this was altogether a useful direc-



Portraits of Montyon and Franklin.—From the Montyon Medal.

tion for his benevolence, but it shows the kindness of his heart. M. de Montyon died at Paris, December 29, 1820. By his will he left seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars to public hospitals, and two hundred and fifty thousand dollars for the annual maintenance of the prizes which he had instituted. Perhaps the most judicious of all his endowments was that for the benefit of convalescent patients, who, when discharged from the hospitals, are still incapable of earning their livelihood. He left to the mayor of each of the twelve municipal division of Paris the care of distributing his bounty to this class of distressed persons, the sum allowed to be in proportion to the necessities of each case. M. de Montyon was charitable without ostentation, and hence was accused of avarice; another instance of the injustice which men are liable to fall into when they judge too hastily of motives and actions. The memory of this benevolent man is not only publicly honored on every anniversary for distributing his prizes, but he has claims of an enduring nature upon the daily gratitude of many of his fellow-creatures. One of his perpetual prizes is given each year to the individual who had discovered the means of rendering any mechanical occupation less unhealthy; another for improvements in the arts of medicine and surgery; a third for a statistical essay. The above prizes are distributed by the Academy of Sciences. The two following are distributed by the French Academy. The "prize of virtue," to the Frenchman who has performed the most meritorious action within the year; and another to the writer of the work likely to have the most beneficial influence on manners and morality.

In Belgium there is an annual distribution of medals by the king, in imitation of Montyon's "prize of virtue." They are given on the recommendation of the provincial authorities and others.

In conjunction with the influence which in France may be attributed to the Montyon prizes, a society was formed at Paris in the year 1833, whose object is to publish memoirs and portraits of men of all countries who are entitled to be regarded as the benefactors of their species. They are ranked in two classes—the benevolent simply, as Montyon, Howard, and Mrs. Fry; and the other class comprises men of equally benevolent character, but who have benefited their kind by some special means, which they have originated or improved: it includes Jenner, Franklin, Davy, Chaptal, and Jacquard, who have mitigated the evils of society and ameliorated the general condition of man by their talents. On the first formation of the society a medal was struck in commemoration of the event. The busts of Montyon and Franklin, on the opposite page, are enlarged copies taken from the medal. The medal bears inscriptions, which we give in this place. On the left side are the words "Montyon, Génie de Bienfaisance;" and on the right side, "Franklin, Bienfaisance de Génie." On the reverse, in the centre, is inscribed "Les Souscripteurs Associés pour propager l'Histoire des Bienfaiteurs de l'Humanité;" and around the exergue "Société Montyon et Franklin pour les Portraits des Hommes Utiles." The intention of the society is similar to that which led the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge to publish the "Gallery of Portraits." Only the truly illustrious find a place in the publication issued by the "Société Montyon et Franklin." By the side of princes and prelates, and persons of rank, are found men of obscure condition, whose virtues have raised them to equal eminence. There is every reason to believe that the labors of the society are attended with unmingled good. The portraits of men who have benefited mankind are distributed far and wide in the cottage of the peasant, and in the dwelling of the artisan, and generally among all classes. A reverence is thus excited for that which is excellent in the human mind, and in some this may rise to an enthusiasm which will give a higher tone to the whole tenor of their existence. By fixing the attention upon a superior standard of character, an insensible approximation will be made by some toward what has justly excited their admiration.



JOHN ADAMS.

JOHN ADAMS was born at Braintree (now Quincy), in Massachusetts, October 30, 1735, and was a direct lineal descendant, in the fourth generation, from Henry Adams, who fled from the persecutions in England during the reign of Charles I. Archbishop Laud, the spiritual adviser of that king, influenced no doubt by the Roman catholic queen, Henrietta Maria of France, took especial pains to enforce the strictest observance of the liturgy of the established church of England in the church of Scotland, and also in the puritan churches: those individuals and congregations who would not conform to these requirements were severely dealt with, and these persecutions drove a great many to the western world, where they might worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences. The maternal ancestor of Mr. Adams was John Alden, a passenger in the *May-Flower*; and thus the subject of our memoir inherited from both paternal ancestors the title of a "son of Liberty," a name which was subsequently bestowed on the American patriots by Colonel Barré, on the floor of the British house of commons. His primary education was derived in a school at Braintree, and there he passed through a preparatory course of instruction for Harvard university, whence he graduated at the age of twenty.

Having chosen the law as a profession, he entered upon the study of it with an eminent barrister in Worcester, by the name of Putnam. There he had the advantage of sound legal instruction, and through Mr. Putnam he became acquainted with many distinguished public men, among whom was Mr. Gridley the attorney-general. Their first interview awakened sentiments of mutual regard, and young Adams was allowed the free use of Mr. Gridley's extensive library, a privilege of great value in those days. It was a rich treasure thrown

open to him, and its value was soon apparent in the expansion of his general knowledge. He was admitted to the bar in 1758, and commenced practice in Braintree.

At an early period, young Adams's mind was turned to the contemplation of the general politics of his country, and the atmosphere of liberal principles in which he had been born and nurtured gave a patriotic bias to his judgment and feelings. He watched narrowly the movements of the British government toward the American colonies, and was ever out-spoken in his condemnation of its oppressive acts.

He was admitted as a barrister in 1761; and as his professional business increased, and his acquaintance among distinguished politicians extended, he became more publicly active, until, in 1765, when the stamp-act had raised a perfect hurricane in America, he wrote and published his "Essay on the Canon and Feudal Law." This production at once placed him high in the popular esteem; and the same year he was associated with James Otis and others, to demand, in the presence of the royal governor, that the courts should dispense with the use of stamped paper in the administration of justice.

In 1766, Mr. Adams married Abigail Smith, the amiable daughter of a pious clergyman of Braintree, and soon afterward he removed to Boston. There he was actively associated with Hancock, Otis, and others, in the various measures in favor of the liberties of the people, and was very energetic in endeavors to have the military removed from the town. Governor Bernard endeavored to bribe him to silence, at least, by offers of lucrative offices, but they were all rejected with disdain.

When, after the Boston massacre, March 5, 1770, Captain Preston and his men were arraigned for murder, Mr. Adams was applied to, to act as counsel in their defence. Popular favor on one side, and the demands of justice and humanity on the other, were the horns of the dilemma between which Mr. Adams was placed by the application. But he was not long in choosing. He accepted the invitation; he defended the prisoners successfully: Captain Preston was acquitted, and, notwithstanding the tremendous excitement that existed among the soldiers, the patriotism of Mr. Adams was too far above suspicion to make this defence of the enemy a cause for withdrawing from him the confidence which the people reposed in him. His friends applauded him for the act, and the people were satisfied, as was evident by their choosing him, that same year, a representative in the provincial assembly.

Mr. Adams became very obnoxious to both Governors Bernard and Hutchinson. He was elected to a seat in the executive council, but the latter erased his name. He was again elected when Governor Gage assumed authority, and he too erased his name. These things increased his popularity. Soon after the accession of Gage, the assembly at Salem (whither it had been removed from Boston by act of parliament, together with the customhouse, law courts, &c., to punish the Bostonians for the tea-riot) adopted a proposition for a general Congress, and elected five delegates thereto in spite of the efforts of the governor to prevent it. John Adams was one of those delegates, and took his seat in the first continental Congress, convened in Philadelphia on the 5th of September, 1774. He was again elected a delegate in 1775, and, through his influence, Washington was elected commander-in-chief of all the forces of the united colonies. Mr. Adams did not, indeed, nominate Washington, as has been frequently stated. He gave notice that he should "propose a member of Congress from Virginia," which was understood to be Washington; but, for reasons that do not appear upon the journals, he was nominated by Thomas Johnson, of Maryland.

On the 6th of May, 1776, Mr. Adams introduced a motion in Congress "that the colonies should form governments independent of the crown." This mo-

tion was equivalent to a declaration of independence ; and when, a month afterward, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, introduced a motion more explicitly to declare the colonies free and independent, Mr. Adams was one of its warmest advocates. He was appointed one of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence (his colleagues being Dr. Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston), and he placed his signature to that document on the 2d of August, 1776. After the battle of Long Island, he was appointed by Congress, with Dr. Franklin and Edward Rutledge, to meet Lord Howe in conference upon Staten Island, concerning the pacification of the colonies. According to his prediction, the mission failed. Notwithstanding his great labors in Congress, he was appointed a member of the council of Massachusetts, while on a visit home, in 1776, the duties of which he faithfully fulfilled. To give an idea of the arduous tasks devolving upon him, it may be mentioned that during the remainder of the year 1776, and until December of the year following, he was a member of ninety different committees, and chairman of twenty-five !

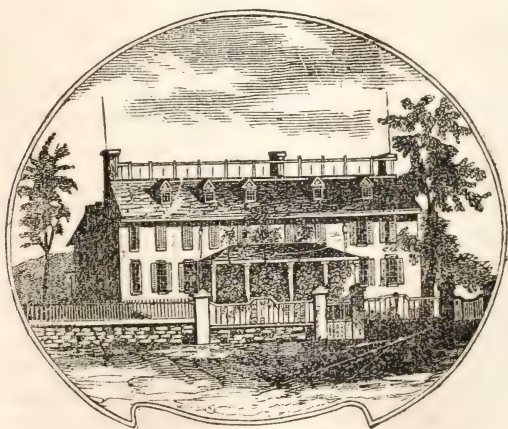
In 1777, Mr. Adams was appointed a special commissioner to the court of France, whither Dr. Franklin had previously gone. Finding the object of his mission fully attended to by Franklin, Adams returned home in 1779. He was immediately called to the duty of forming a constitution for his native state. While in the discharge of his duty in convention, Congress appointed him a minister to Great Britain, to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with that government. He left Boston in the French frigate *La Sensible*, in October, 1779, and after a long passage, landed at Ferrol, in Spain, whence he journeyed by land to Paris, where he arrived in February, 1780. He found the British government indisposed for peace, if American independence was to be the *sine qua non*, and was about to return home, when he received from Congress the appointment of commissioner to Holland, to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce with the states-general. The confidence of Congress in him was unlimited, and he was intrusted at one time with the execution of no less than six missions, each of a different character, viz. : 1. To negotiate a peace with Great Britain. 2. To make a treaty of commerce with Great Britain. 3. The same with the states-general. 4. The same with the prince of Orange. 5. To pledge the faith of the United States to the armed neutrality. 6. To negotiate a loan of ten millions of dollars. In 1781, he was associated with Franklin, Jay, and Laurens, as a commissioner to conclude treaties of peace with the European powers. In 1782, he assisted in negotiating a commercial treaty with Great Britain, and was the first of the American commissioners who signed the definitive treaty of peace with that power, September 3, 1783. The following year he returned to Paris.

In 1785, Mr. Adams was appointed by Congress minister at the court of St. James, where, owing to the coldness of the British ministry, he was unsuccessful in negotiating a commercial treaty, but still rendered important services to his country. He also assisted in other important diplomatic labors, and wrote his celebrated "Defence of the American Constitution." In 1788, he returned to his native country, after an absence of nearly nine years, assiduously and ardently devoted to its service. He was unquestionably one of the sincerest patriots and greatest diplomatists that ever lived ; and Congress, in granting him, at his own request, permission to return from Europe, adopted the following resolution : "*Resolved*, That Congress entertain a high sense of the services which Mr. Adams has rendered to the United States, in the execution of the various important trusts which they have, from time to time, committed to him ; and that the thanks of Congress be presented to him for the patriotism, perseverance, integrity, and diligence, with which he has ably and faithfully served his country."

Upon his return home, Mr. Adams was, in 1789, elected vice-president of the United States, on the same ticket with Washington, and re-elected in 1793. He presided, during this time, in the senate, with great dignity and forbearance, and acquired the profound respect of both friends and opponents. Upon the retirement of Washington, Mr. Adams was elected president, and Mr. Jefferson at the same time elected vice-president. We have not space to go into a discussion of the exciting scenes and questions of this period, and to draw from them the reasons for the defeat of Mr. Adams for a second term, and the election of Mr. Jefferson. In 1801, Mr. Adams, who was prepared for defeat, retired to his estate in Quincy, and passed the remainder of his life in retirement, and in literary and scientific pursuits. The friendship between him and Mr. Jefferson continued unbroken, and was kept warm by frequent correspondence. When the war with Great Britain broke out, in 1812, Mr. Adams declared his approbation of that measure. In 1816, he was placed at the head of the republican list of presidential electors for Massachusetts; and, in 1820, was elected to a convention to revise the constitution of his native state. In 1820, he lost his beloved wife, and his only daughter had died in 1813, both being women of elevated character and distinguished attainments, and having died universally lamented.

In the year 1825, Mr. Adams saw his son elevated to the same high office he himself had filled; and on the 4th day of July, 1826, it being the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence, which he had been so greatly instrumental in maintaining, the good and faithful patriot peacefully expired, in the ninety-first year of his age. He was asked, only a little while before his death, to suggest a toast for the approaching anniversary celebration. "I will give you," said he, "*Independence for ever!*" Mr. Jefferson, it is well known, died on the same day; and, just five years later, President Monroe also signalized by his death the anniversary of his country's independence.

The life of a sincere and simply great man, like that of John Adams, corresponds in morals to the statues of the antique in the world of art: it possesses a grandeur and a sublimity rising far above the highest flights of the imagination, and inspiring a sentiment more profound and more sacred than enthusiasm



Residence of John Adams, at Quincy.

JAMES WATT.

JAMES WATT, distinguished especially by his improvements in the steam-engine, was the son of a tradesman at Greenock, in Scotland, and was born in 1736. Brought up to the occupation of a mathematical instrument maker, he in that capacity became attached to the university of Glasgow, in which he had apartments, where he resided till 1756. Having now entered into the married state, he settled in business for himself, and in 1764 conceived the idea of improving the steam-engine, adopted the profession of a civil engineer, and he was frequently employed in making surveys for canals, &c. To facilitate his labors, he invented a new micrometer, and a machine for making drawings in perspective.

In 1774, Watt removed to the village of Soho, in the vicinity of Birmingham, where he entered into partnership with Mr. Boulton, in conjunction with whom he carried on his improvements in the steam-engine, which he brought to great perfection. Here he became associated with Dr. Priestley* and other philosophical experimentalists, and shared in the chemical researches which they prosecuted. Admitted a fellow of the Royal Society, he contributed to its "Transactions" an interesting paper, entitled "Thoughts on the Constituent Parts of Water, and of Dephlogisticated Air;" and another on a "New Method of preparing a Test-Liquor to show the Presence of Acids and Alkalies in Chemical Mixtures." Mr. Watt was also a fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh; and in 1806 received from the University of Glasgow the honorary degree of LL. D. Various inventions of great practical utility originated from his ingenuity. His death took place August 25, 1819, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

A bronze statue was erected to the memory of Watt at Glasgow; another, of white marble, was placed in the Hunterian Museum in the same large commercial town; and a third, also of white marble, adorns Westminster abbey. From the latter statue the drawing on page 340 was made. The three were executed

* JOSEPH PRIESTLEY, an eminent unitarian divine and experimental philosopher, was born in 1733, at Fieldhead, in Yorkshire, England, and was educated at Daventry. He became minister to the congregation at Needham Market, in Suffolk; whence he removed to Nantwich, in Cheshire, and next to Warrington, where the dissenters had formed a seminary. While tutor in this institution, he published the "History of Electricity," which procured his election into the Royal Society, and the degree of doctor of laws from Edinburgh. It was here also that his political opinions were first manifested in an "Essay on Government." Soon after this he left Warrington, and went to Leeds, where he made those important discoveries with regard to the properties of fixed air, for which he obtained the Copley medal from the Royal Society in 1772. In 1776, he communicated to the same learned body his observations on respiration, being the first who experimentally ascertained that the common inspired air becomes both lessened and injured, by the action of the blood, as it passes through the lungs. He had already declared himself a believer in the doctrine of philosophical necessity, and expressed some doubts of the immateriality of the sentient principle in man. This doctrine he still more forcibly supported in his "Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit;" and the obloquy which these works brought on him producing a coolness in his patron, Lord Shelburne, the connection was dissolved, the doctor retaining an annuity of about six hundred and fifty dollars per annum, by original agreement. He next removed to Birmingham, where he became once more minister of a dissenting congregation, and occupied himself in his "History of the Corruptions of Christianity," writing also in support of the claims of the dissenters for a repeal of the test-acts. But it was the French Revolution that afforded him the widest field, and he did not fail to display his zeal on that occasion. This excited the indignation and bigotry of the high-church party; and in the riots which took place in July, his house, library, manuscripts, and apparatus, were committed to the flames by the mob; and he was exposed to great personal danger. After this he removed to Hackney, where he succeeded Dr. Price; but, in 1794, he came to the United States, took up his abode at Northumberland, in Pennsylvania, and died there in 1804. He enjoyed the friendship and admiration of President Jefferson and many other distinguished men. His works extend to between seventy and eighty volumes. Besides those before mentioned, are, "Lectures on General History," on the "Theory and History of Language," and on the "Principles of Oratory and Criticism," "Hartleian Theory of the Human Mind," "Letters to a Philosophical Unbeliever," "Institutes of a Natural and Revealed Religion," &c. As a philosopher, his fame principally rests on his pneumatic inquiries. His attainments in general literature were most profound, yet with all his learning he retained a childlike simplicity of manners.



Village of Sobho—Residence of James Watt.

by Mr. Chantrey, who, independent of his excellences as a sculptor, had the advantage of modelling Watt before his death. The statue represented in our engraving is the most beautiful in Westminster abbey; and it is remarkable for the following striking inscription, said to be written by Lord Brougham, who, at a public meeting at which it was determined to erect this monument, paid a high tribute to the character and genius of the great mechanic:—

Not to perpetuate a name
Which must endure while the peaceful arts flourish,
But to show
That mankind have learned to honor those
Who best deserve their gratitude,
The King,
His Ministers, and many of the Nobles
and Commoners of the Realm,
Raised this Monument to
JAMES WATT,
Who, directing the force of an original Genius,
Early exercised in philosophic research,
To the improvement of
The Steam-Engine,
Enlarged the Resources of his Country,
Increased the Power of Man,
And rose to an eminent place
Among the most illustrious followers of Science
And the real Benefactors of the World.
Born at Greenock, MDCCLXXVI.
Died at Heathfield, in Staffordshire, MDCCCXIX.



Statue of Watt in Westminster Abbey.



PATRICK HENRY.

SECOND only to Washington in the estimation of the American people, at the era of their Revolution, stood PATRICK HENRY, usually called the orator of Virginia. In Hanover county, in that colony, he first saw the light on the 29th of May, 1736. His father kept a grammar-school of the humbler order; and in this seminary did young Henry acquire the rudiments of Latin, which, with a slight tincture of mathematics, formed the extent of his regular education. In his boyhood he is said to have shown an aversion to study, preferring greatly to indulge in the sports of the forest, the hill, and the lake, and almost always following such pursuits alone. But it was also observed of him, by the more sharp-sighted, that the quickness of his perceptions, and strength of his memory, made up in a great measure for the want of the power of close application; and that no remark of any importance could be made in his presence without being retained in his mind, heedless as he might at the time seem to be. On the whole, however, he was regarded by most people as an indolent and unpromising boy; and, his love of solitude having induced careless habits as to dress and demeanor, no external qualities appeared in him to redeem his other deficiencies.

As he was one of a family of nine children, his parents were glad to get him placed behind the counter of a small store in a country village. Thence he emerged at a very early age, and prematurely commenced business for himself. The speculation was entered on almost without capital, and soon proved unfortunate, partly, it is related, because, in place of studying the wishes of his customers, Henry took into his head the fancy of studying their characters. The knowledge which he thus acquired of human nature might enable him in after-days to wield at will the democracy, but it was ill calculated to improve his temporary fortunes. These were rendered still less promising by his falling in love with a Miss Shelton, and marrying her, at the age of eighteen, she being as poorly provided with funds as himself. Nevertheless, on the failure of the mercantile concern, the friends of the young pair raised a sufficiency of

money to place them in a small farm, with two negroes as helps. It is admitted that Henry toiled here in a manner deserving of success; but he was ignorant of farming affairs, and was weighed down by previous debts. Two years passed away, and found him again a ruined man; nor was a second mercantile attempt one whit more successful than the former.

Burdened with a family, overwhelmed by pecuniary engagements, and set down by all as a man doomed to misfortune, Patrick Henry, now twenty-four years of age, might almost have been pardoned for sinking into despondency. But this was not in his nature. Though others, strangely enough, seem not as yet to have descried in him the marks of a powerful intellect, he himself certainly felt the sustaining consciousness that he did possess powers, for the development of which, opportunity alone was required. The direction in which he turned his thoughts at this critical period sufficiently shows that he even had a glimmering internal sense of what was his greatest gift. He resolved to become a candidate for the *bar*. After six weeks' preparation he presented himself before the three examiners, whose signatures were preliminary to a call, and two of them signed for him, apparently out of mere good nature. But the third, Mr. John Randolph, a polished man of the old school, revolted so much at the rough and uncouth appearance of the candidate, that he refused even to examine him. But at length, induced to do so, received a very great surprise indeed. On a mooted point of law, Henry, guided by the force, simply, of natural reason, not only astonished the examiner by the acuteness of his views and the splendor of his illustrations, but even caught the great lawyer tripping, as a reference to authorities proved. Randolph confessed his error, and generously predicted a career of fame and honor for Henry, if his industry proved equal to his genius.

Notwithstanding this encouraging prognostication, three years of penury were yet in store for the patronless Henry; and during this interval he was reduced to live with his father-in-law, in whose small hotel he was not unfrequently necessitated to fulfil a waiter's duties. But from this humiliating position he wanted only the aid of occasion to extricate him, and, almost accidentally, the occasion at length was granted to him. The Virginian clergy and their parishioners had a quarrel, which ultimately resolved itself into a question of damages. The clergy, much better supported than their opponents seemed to be certain of casting the people in heavy costs. The advocate for the people became disheartened, and threw up the case; and Patrick Henry almost as a last resource, was engaged in his stead. The day of his first appearance was every way a trying one. On the bench of the court sat not only the judges, but a large body of clergymen, the most learned men of the province; and the house itself was crowded by an eager multitude. As if to try the young advocate even more, his own father was present in an official capacity. After a clear and able address for the clergy, Patrick Henry rose. Well, at that moment, might he have felt in imagination, the hands of his little children tugging at his coat, as Lord Erskine felt on a similar occasion. The appearance of Henry was not calculated to prepossess his hearers in his favor, nor did such an effect result from his opening sentences. On the contrary, they fell so flatly from his lips, that the clergy began to nod and leer at each other, and the speaker's father hung down his head. But the scene soon changed. "As Henry warmed," to use the language of one of his biographers, "he seemed to shed his nature—the rustic shell fell from him—his person seemed to undergo a mystical transformation—his mien became majestic—his eye flashed fire—the tones of his voice fell directly upon the heart—and he stood before his mute and vassal auditory, a creature of inspiration. The effect was incredible. Appalled by the fury of one of his terrible invectives, the clergy fled affrighted from the bench; and the jury, obedient to his bidding, returned

a verdict of one penny damages." This memorable speech gave a proverbial phrase to Virginia, where a specially good speaker is still talked of as "being almost equal to Patrick Henry when he pleaded against the parsons."

Few orators, from Demosthenes down to our greatest moderns, have blazed forth in the perfection of their powers on their first trial. But Henry was the orator of nature, and to him art and practice were unnecessary. During his whole life, natural sense and genius, not acquired knowledge, guided him. After his opening display, he removed to Louisa county, and carrying his reputation with him, received a large share of the somewhat meager practice of these courts. His professional exertions of this era can only be spoken of generally, but, by all accounts, they were surprisingly brilliant. The verdict of juries and the applause of judges testify to this fact. But the time came when Patrick Henry was to step into a mightier arena, and employ his energies on a cause of almost unparalleled magnitude and importance. Immediately after the obnoxious stamp-act of 1764-'5, had spread a ferment among the American colonies, Henry, at that time, almost adored by the people, among whom he was ever proud to rank himself, was elected a member of the legislature of Virginia. During the whole of the ensuing short sitting, Henry seems to have waited in the expectation that the deepening murmurs of the people would find condensed expression by some voice more authoritative than his own; but the boldest were content to sit in gloomy silence. At length, "alone, unadvised, and unassisted," as he himself tells us, Henry determined to step forth; and he proposed, in May, 1765, his famous five resolutions, one of which asserted the sole right of the colony to tax itself, being a virtual declaration of independence. The torrent of eloquence which Henry poured forth in support of these resolutions bore down all opposition, and they were carried by a majority of *one*. We have but one sentence left to show us what the speech of Henry was. It is a sentence equally marked by power and self-possession. In the midst of his invective he exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus—Charles I. his Cromwell—and George III."—"Treason!" cried the speaker, and "Treason!" was re-echoed on all sides)—"Yes," continued Henry, never faltering for a moment, and fixing an eye of fire on the speaker, "and George III.—*may profit by their example*. If this be treason, make the most of it."

The resolutions of Henry involved, as has been said, the principle of independence; but the critical struggle did not immediately follow. It was only brought on by the tea affair at Boston, in 1774. The subject of our memoir was then startled anew by the armies which Britain was silently collecting in the Canadas. He thundered forth to the Virginia legislature a speech which rang through the whole colonies like the summons of a new Demosthenes—"Let us march against Philip; let us conquer or die!" He called for an armed organization, and pointing to the British forces in the north, he demanded what enemies Great Britain had in America to require and employ these. "She has none," he himself replied; "they are meant for us; they can be meant for no other. They are sent over to bind and rivet upon us those chains which the British ministry have so long been forging. And what have we to oppose to them? Shall we try argument? Sir, we have been trying that for the last ten years. We have done everything which could be done to avert the storm which is coming on. We have petitioned—we have remonstrated—we have supplicated—we have prostrated ourselves before the throne, and have implored its interposition to arrest the tyrannical hands of the ministry and the parliament. Our petitions have been slighted—our remonstrances have produced additional violence and insult—our supplications have been disregarded—and we have been spurned with contempt from the foot of the throne. In vain, after these things, may we indulge in the fond hope of peace and reconciliation. There is no longer any room for hope. If we wish to be free—if we mean to preserve

inviolate those inestimable privileges for which we have been so long contending—if we mean not basely to abandon the noble struggle in which we have been so long engaged, and which we have pledged ourselves never to abandon, until the glorious object of our contest shall be obtained—*we must fight!* I repeat it, sir, *we must fight!* . . . I know not what course others may take; but as for me,” cried he, his arms raised aloft, his brow knit, and his whole frame as if on fire with the enthusiasm which inflamed him, “give me liberty, or give me death!” These heart-stirring passages show, that, though Henry’s delivery may have been as magically impressive as it is said to have been, yet his oratory rested not for its effect on that charm alone.

Patrick Henry’s speech threw Virginia into arms, and decided the character of the coming contest, giving it a warlike complexion. Nor did he hesitate to follow up his words by acts. At the Virginian capital of Williamsburgh, twenty barrels of gunpowder were taken from the state by the order of Lord Dunmore, in order to cripple their means. Henry instantly stepped forward, harangued the people of Newcastle, and soon after marched upon Williamsburgh at the head of a large force. Lord Dunmore was forced to submit, and make full restitution. When the contest fairly broke out, the subject of our memoir headed the first warlike operations in Virginia, and received a high command in the army. Some slight led him to resign, but he was even more usefully employed in the government of Virginia, which he held three several times. He would have been elected again, but, jealous even of his own assumption of a monopoly of honors, the patriot firmly refused it. When peace was established, Henry confirmed the high opinions of his statesmanship, which he had earned by his provincial management, by the share he took in laying the foundations of the new republic. More particularly did he show at once his wisdom and his humanity by coming forward, in the face of the most bitter opposition, to advocate the recall of the British refugees. This conduct was the more peculiarly honorable to him, as his fortunes had suffered so severely during the seventeen years’ turmoil, that he was compelled, at the age of fifty, to quit public life and return to the bar. His speech, on this occasion, is a model of subdued and reflective eloquence. His peroration said to the assembly: “Discard from your bosoms fears so groundless and prejudices so disgraceful—unfetter commerce—let her be free as air; depend upon it, she will range the whole creation, and return on the wings of the four winds of heaven to bless the land with plenty.” His proposition was carried, and its beneficial effects were soon seen in the peopling of the yet untrodden wilds of the country.

So high was the reputation of Henry, that within six years after his return to the bar, he was enabled to retire with an ample independence. Some of his speeches of this era have been preserved, and more particularly one on the question whether British subjects were entitled to the payment of debts contracted to them before the war. Henry was employed to argue the negative; and his speech, which lasted for a whole day, would alone suffice to prove that the commanding order of his intellect, was the real source of Henry’s success. His main argument was that the British confiscated and ruined all opposed to them as far as they were able. His advocacy of the recall of the British shows how little illiberality there really lay in his own heart.

Henry stepped out again on the floor of the Virginian assembly, to which the mere wish introduced him at will, when the new constitution was proposed. He was a sincere republican, yet not even his deep regard for Washington could prevent him from feeling and expressing alarm at the creation of a presidentship. He beheld in such an officer but a disguised monarch, and trembled at the danger that might arise from the power and favor of an army. He was unsuccessful in his opposition in the Virginian senate, but, sincere in his sentiments, he stood a candidate for and obtained a seat in the national Con-

gress, determined still to oppose it there. But, though his mental energies were unimpaired, his health had now begun to fail, and ere the Congress met, Patrick Henry was in his grave. He expired on the 6th of June, 1799. In the year before he died, it may be mentioned, Bonaparte had overthrown a series of Austrian armies, and Henry was heard confidently to predict the occurrence in France of what he dreaded even in his own more steady country. If Washington nobly falsified his fears, Bonaparte fully proved his prophetic foresight.

Every successive step which Patrick Henry took in his course through life, showed him to be no ephemeral upshoot of an hour, but a great-minded and great-hearted being, fitted to exercise a comprehensive influence on his age. He must ever rank among the great founders of American liberty. No man can be named, indeed, who so directly contributed to nurse the spirit which led to that mighty and important issue.



JOHN HANCOCK.

JOHN HANCOCK was born in 1737, at Quincy, near Boston, whence have emanated the two presidents Adams. He was the son and grandson of eminent clergymen, but having early lost his father, was indebted for a liberal education to his uncle, a merchant of great wealth, whose counting-house he afterward entered, but soon sailed for England, where he was present at the coronation of George III. in 1760. His uncle dying in 1774, he succeeded to his large fortune and business, and came in possession of the fine family mansion. About this time he married Miss Quincy, daughter of an eminent magistrate of Boston, and one of the most distinguished families in New England. No children of this connection were left to inherit his fortune or perpetuate his name—his only son having died during his youth.

The first provocation of the British government which created a spirit of civil discord among her provinces, was the imposition of duties upon the importation of foreign merchandise, and other injuries impairing the prosperity

of the colonial commerce. Upon this occasion, all the address and diligence of Mr. Hancock were exerted in opposition to a system of legislation so rapacious and tyrannical. It was by his agency, and that of a few other citizens of Boston, that, for the purpose of procuring a revocation of these duties, associations were instituted to prohibit the importation of British goods; a policy which, soon afterward being imitated by the other colonies, first served to awaken the apprehensions of the people, and to kindle those passions that were essential to the success of the ensuing war, and the preservation of their liberties. The agitation of this subject produced no common animosity, and in some instances acts of atrocity and outrage—of which we may mention, as among the most conspicuous, the case of Mr. Otis, who, at the instigation of a British officer, was assailed by a band of ruffians, with a violence which impaired his reason, and hastened his death.

About this time, a vessel belonging to Mr. Hancock being loaded, it was said, in contravention of the revenue laws, was seized by the customhouse officers, and carried under the guns of a man-of-war at the time in the harbor, for security; but the people, exasperated by this offensive exercise of authority, assembled, and pursuing the officers, beat them with clubs, and drove them on board their vessels for protection. The boat of the collector was then burnt in triumph by the mob, and the houses of some of his most obnoxious adherents were, in the first transports of popular fury, razed to the ground. Thus Mr. Hancock, in more ways than one, contributed to set the great wheel of the Revolution in motion, though he could not himself have approved of such acts, which were disapproved by the legal authorities. Yet he derived from his connection with the affair an increased popularity. At an assembly of the citizens, Mr. Hancock and others were appointed to request of the governor a removal of the British troops from the town, which the governor attempted to evade. A second committee being selected, of which Mr. Hancock was chairman, voted the excuses made inadmissible, and, by a more peremptory tone of expostulation, urged and obtained their removal. This governor had complimented Hancock in 1767 with a lieutenantcy; but the latter, declaring his determination to hold no office under a man whose political views and principles he considered hostile to the liberties of his country, he tore up the commission in presence of many citizens; for which bold act he received the severe reprehension and threats of the royal government.

Mr. Hancock was active as a member of the provincial assembly against the royal governor, and became so obnoxious to him, that after the battle of Lexington, in 1775, in a proclamation offering pardon to the "rebels" who should swear fealty to Britain, Governor Gage excepted Hancock and Samuel Adams by name from the executive clemency, as persons "whose offences," it is declared, "are of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment." They escaped from one door of a house in Boston as the British soldiers entered it at another, and thus their valuable lives were preserved to aid the good cause of the Revolution.

Hancock was president of the provisional convention of Massachusetts, until sent a delegate to the general Congress at Philadelphia, in 1775, where he was soon chosen to succeed Peyton Randolph as president of that august assembly. He was the first to affix his signature to the Declaration of Independence, which was first published with no other name attached. He filled this important chair till 1779, when gout compelled him to retire from Congress. He was then elected governor of Massachusetts, and was annually chosen from 1780 to 1785, and after an interval of two years was re-elected, and continued to fill the office until his death, October 8, 1793, at the age of fifty-six years. He acted also as president of the convention of the state for the adoption of the federal constitution, for which he voted.

After his death, his body lay in state at his mansion, where great multitudes thronged to pay the last offices of their grief and affection. His obsequies were attended with great pomp and solemnity, and amid the tears of his countrymen he was laid in the dust.

In stature, Mr. Hancock was above the middle size, of excellent proportion of limbs, of extreme benignity of countenance, possessing a flexible and harmonious voice, and a manly and dignified aspect. By the improvement of these natural qualities from observation and extensive intercourse with the world, he had acquired a pleasing elocution, with the most graceful and conciliating manners. Yet of his modesty there is a beautiful anecdote related by his biographers. That there were members of the first Congress of superior age to his, and men at the same of pre-eminent virtues and talents, will not be denied. The occasion was one upon which calmness was essential; for rarely in the vicissitudes of nations has it happened that interests more sacred have been confided to the infirmity of human wisdom and integrity, or that a spectacle more imposing has been exhibited to human observation. Mr. Hancock's timidity at being called to fill the chair was relieved, it is said, by a strong-nerved member from the south, who led or bore him to the seat. When placed in that conspicuous position, he presided with a dignity and capacity that extorted the respect and approbation of even his opponents. Yet his talents were rather useful than brilliant. He seldom spoke, but his knowledge of business, and facility in despatching it, together with his keen insight into the characters of men, rendered him peculiarly fit for public life. Being well acquainted with parliamentary forms, he inspired respect by his attention, impartiality, and dignity of bearing. His communications to the general assembly of Massachusetts, and his correspondence as president of the continental Congress, are enduring proofs of his putting his shoulder effectively to the wheel of public affairs. His knowledge was practical and familiar: he neither penetrated the intricacies of profound research, nor did he mount to inaccessible elevations. Had his life been marked by no other event than the act of first placing his signature to the immortal Declaration of Independence, it would have entitled him to ever-enduring renown; but combining with that act, as he did, great and useful wisdom in the councils of our infant nation, his name will descend to posterity with unqualified lustre.

In private life, Hancock was remarkable for his hospitality and beneficence. He was a complete "gentleman of the old school," in both appearance and manners, and was a magnificent liver, lavishly bountiful, keeping a coach and six horses (with which he proceeded in state, while governor, to open and close the sessions of the legislature, attended by a body of cavalry, which he maintained at his own expense), and distinguished for his politeness and affability. He was also a liberal patron of learning, having given large sums to Harvard university.

As a striking illustration of the disinterestedness and public spirit by which he was ever actuated in the cause of the Revolution, it is related that when Washington consulted the legislature of Massachusetts upon the propriety of bombarding Boston from Dorchester heights, for the purpose of compelling the British troops to evacuate the town, Hancock advised its being done immediately, if it would benefit the cause, although nearly his whole property consisted in houses and other real estate in the capital. Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, and Hancock, probably risked more property on the event of the revolutionary struggle than any other two individuals. The estate at Quincy, which was his inheritance, is now the property of the illustrious Adams family. The old family mansion in Boston is still in the possession of the heirs of Governor Hancock, and rented as a private dwelling. The main building is of hewn stone, and commands a beautiful prospect.

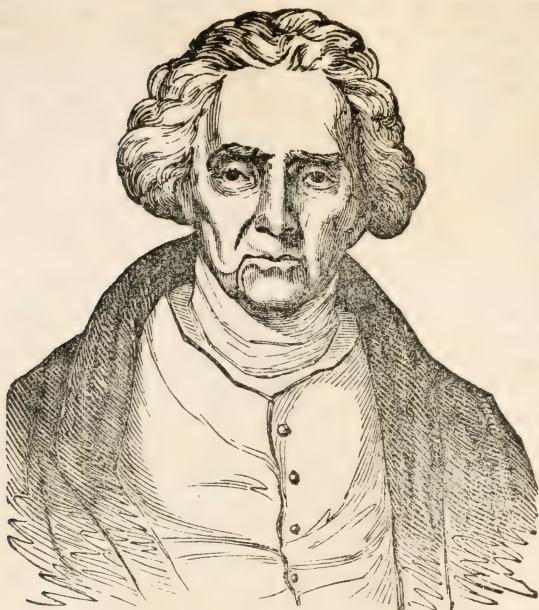


THOMAS PAINE.

THOMAS PAINE was born January 29, 1737, at Thetford, in Norfolk, England, where his father, a quaker, carried on the business of a staymaker, and brought up his son to it. He subsequently became an exciseman, and was living at Lewes, in Sussex, when he lost his situation, in consequence of keeping a tobacconist's shop, which was considered incompatible with his duties. His literary abilities having appeared in a pamphlet composed by him in order to show the necessity of advancing the salaries of excisemen, he was introduced to Dr. Franklin, who urged him to come to America, and use his pen in behalf of the colonies. He accordingly came here, and reached Philadelphia in 1774. At first he conducted the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, which, from the boldness of its arguments, attracted considerable notice. He then published his celebrated pamphlet, entitled "*Common Sense*," which had a prodigious sale, and undoubtedly accelerated the Declaration of Independence. For this production, the legislature of Pennsylvania voted him £500. He was afterward also rewarded with a grant of five hundred acres of well-cultivated land, from the state of New York, and made clerk to the committee for foreign affairs. Soon after the Declaration of Independence, he wrote the first number of the "*Crisis*." The object of this tract was good, the method excellent, and the language suited to the de-

pressed spirits of the army, of public bodies, and of private citizens, cheering. Washington, defeated on Long Island, had retreated to New York, and been driven with great loss from Forts Washington and Lee. The gallant little army, overwhelmed with a rapid succession of misfortunes, was dwindling away, and all seemed to be over with the cause when scarcely a blow had been struck. "These," said the "Crisis," "are the times that try men's souls. The summer soldier, and the sunshine patriot will, in this crisis, shrink from the service of his country; but he that stands it now, deserves the love and thanks of man and woman. Tyranny, like hell, is not easily conquered; yet we have this consolation with us, that the harder the conflict, the more glorious the triumph: what we obtain too cheap we esteem too lightly." The effect of it was almost miraculous; the army was inspirited with new energy, statesmen were encouraged, hope succeeded to despair, cheerfulness to gloom, and firmness to irresolution. This number was succeeded by several others during the war, each written for a particular object, which it always accomplished; and it may be said that his pen was almost as formidable as the cannon, in the success of the revolutionary cause at different periods.

In 1787, he embarked for France, and after visiting Paris, went to England, with a view to the prosecution of a project relative to the construction of an iron bridge, of his own invention, at Rotherham, in Yorkshire. This scheme involved him in considerable difficulties; but his writings, in which he foretold, or rather recommended, the change that was approaching in France, brought him a supply of money. On the appearance of Burke's *Reflections on the French Revolution*, he wrote the first part of his celebrated "*Rights of Man*," in answer to that work. The second part was published early in 1792; and, May 21st, in that year, a proclamation was issued against wicked and seditious publications, evidently alluding to, though it did not name, the "*Rights of Man*." On the same day, the attorney-general commenced a prosecution against Paine as the author of that work. While the trial was pending, he was chosen member of the national convention for the department of Calais; and, making his escape, he set off for France, and arrived there in September, 1792. The garrison at Calais were under arms to receive this "friend of liberty;" the tri-colored cockade was presented to him by the mayor, and the handsomest woman in the town was selected to place it in his hat. Meantime Paine had been declared in Paris worthy of the honors of citizenship, and he proceeded thither, where he was received with every demonstration of joy. On the trial of Louis XVI., he voted against the sentence of death, proposing his imprisonment during the war, and his banishment afterward. This conduct offended the Jacobins, and, toward the close of 1793, he was excluded from the convention, on the ground of being a foreigner (though naturalized); and, immediately after, he was arrested and committed to the Luxembourg. Just before his confinement, he had finished the first part of his deistical work, entitled the "*Age of Reason*;" and, having confided it to the care of his friend, Joel Barlow, it was published. On the fall of Robespierre, he was released; in 1795 he published the second part of his "*Age of Reason*;" and, in May, 1796, he addressed to the council of five hundred a work entitled, the "*Decline and Fall of the System of Finance in England*," and also published his pamphlet entitled "*Agrarian Justice*." Fearful of being captured by English cruisers, he remained in France till August, 1802, when he embarked for America, and reached Baltimore the following October. His subsequent life was by no means happy; for, although occupied in various mechanical speculations, and other engrossing pursuits, and possessed of a decent competence, his attacks upon the Bible and upon Washington, exceedingly narrowed his circle of acquaintance; and his intemperance tended to the injury of his health, and the ultimate production of a complication of disorders, to which he fell a victim, June 8, 1809, aged seventy-two.



CHARLES CARROLL.

CHARLES CARROLL, of Carrollton, was born on the twentieth of September, 1737, at Annapolis, in the state of Maryland. He descended from a highly respectable Irish family, who had emigrated to this country in the reign of William and Mary, and were distinguished as patriots in the troubles of the colony, which soon after that period sprung up. For a while, the catholics were persecuted and deprived of the right of suffrage; but, by a manly resistance to tyranny, they were restored to the privileges granted to them by charter.

At a very early age, Charles Carroll of Carrollton was sent to St. Omars, to be educated; from thence, after a short time, he was removed to Rheims, to the college of Louis Le Grand; and from thence to one of the best institutions in France, for the study of civil law. After becoming well versed in this science, more calculated than any other, to expand the mind for the reception and discussion of great political truths, he passed over to London, and commenced his term at the Temple for the study of common law. This study sharpens the wits, and opens the great fountain of Anglo-Saxon liberty to the patient investigator of English history. After finishing his studies and his travels, he returned to his native land at the ripe age of twenty-seven, and was hailed by the best judges as a well-read scholar, and an accomplished gentleman. Foreign courts had not damped his love of liberty. At this period the discussions with the mother-country and the colonies, upon great points of national law, had commenced, and soon were carried on with great warmth and pertinacity by both parties. Mr. Carroll did not hesitate for a moment, but took side with the lovers of liberty. He wielded a ready pen, and it was soon engaged in the glorious cause. Like others, he, for some time, did not wish to be known; but his writings were so satisfactory to his countrymen that his secret could not long be kept. Some of his political antagonists were among

the first men in Maryland. He foresaw that an appeal must be made to arms, and he boldly advanced his sentiments on this head, and recommended due preparations for such an event. At this time but few voices had been raised to this in any part of the country. Early in 1776, he was sent as one of a commission to Canada, to induce the people of that province to join us in opposing the mother-country. The disasters which had previously befallen our arms in that quarter rendered the mission ineffectual. Mr. Carroll returned in June, 1776, and instantly repaired to the convention of Maryland, of which he was a member; and there, urging them to withdraw the instructions that body had given their delegates in Congress, not to vote for independence, at length found his exertions crowned with success. Mr. Carroll was now appointed a delegate to Congress, and, with his colleagues, was free to act upon the great question as they pleased.

On the 18th of July, he presented his credentials to the continental congress at Philadelphia, and on the 2d of August following, subscribed his name to the immortal instrument. He was considered now as the most fearless man of the age; for he had more to risk, in point of property, than any other man in the whole community, Hancock not excepted. On the day he entered Congress he was appointed to the board of war, of which he was an efficient member.

During the whole of the perilous conflict, he bore his part with unabated ardor, often being at the same time a member of the convention of his native state, and a member of Congress; a double duty, which required great energy and industry to perform; but, so ably did he discharge his duties, that both bodies were satisfied with his attention to each. In 1778, he left Congress, and devoted himself to the councils of his native state, but always with an eye to the great interests of the nation.

When the constitution of the United States went into operation, Mr. Carroll was elected a senator from Maryland, and took his seat at the city of New York, at the organization of the government, on the 30th of April, 1789. He was elected a second time to this situation.

He was never an office-seeker, nor ever from caution or timidity flinched from any honest responsibility, in the darkest hour of the republic.

In the year 1801, he quitted public life, as far as such a man could do so. He had now reached his grand climacteric, and was willing and desirous that younger men should take the field of politics, hardly dreaming then that he was to enjoy another age of man, in the fulness of intellectual vigor. The last thirty years of his life passed away in serenity and happiness, almost unparalleled in the history of man. He enjoyed, as it were, an Indian-summer of existence, a tranquil and lovely period, when the leaves of the forest are richly variegated, but not yet seared; when the parent-bird and the spring nestling are of the same flock, and move on equal wing; when the day of increase and the day of the necessity of provisions are gone; when the fruits of the earth are abundant, and the lakes of the woods are as smooth and joyous as if reflecting the bowers of Eden. Such an Indian summer this patriot enjoyed; his life was thrice, yea, four times blessed; blessed in his birth and education, in his health, in his basket, and in his store; blessed in his numerous and honorable progeny, which extend to several generations; blessed in the protracted measure of his days, in which were crowded the events of many centuries; and blessed in the wonderful prosperity of his country, whose population had since his birth increased from nine hundred thousand souls to more than twelve millions, enjoying the blessings of freemen. It is, perhaps, from the fact, that the world think it quite enough for one mortal that he should be virtuous, prosperous, and enjoy a green old age, that an analysis of his intellectual powers, or a description of his rare attainments, has seldom been attempted; but talents and attainments he had that made him one of the most successful of the busi-

ness men of the momentous period in which he lived—a period when that which the head conceived the hand was ready to execute. There were too few at that time, and those too zealous to make the proper division of labor. The senator armed for the field, and the soldier met with the conscript fathers.

Mr. Carroll was an orator. His eloquence was of the smooth, gentle, satisfactory kind, delighting all, and convincing many. It is not pretended that, like John Adams, he came down upon his hearers as with the thunderblast from Sinai, raising the tables of independence on high, and threatening in his wrath to break them if they were not received by the people; nor that, like Dickenson, he exhausted rhetoric and metaphysics to gain his end, and was for ever striving to be heard; but Carroll came to his subject well-informed, thoroughly imbued with its spirit; and with happy conceptions and graceful delivery, and with chaste and delicate language, he, without violence, conquered the understandings, and led captive the senses of his hearers. All was natural, yet sweet and polished as education could make it. He never seemed fatigued with his labors, nor faint with his exertions. His blood and judgment were so well commingled, that his highest effort was as easy and natural as if he had been engaged in the course of ordinary duties. This happy faculty continued with the patriarch until his latest days, for his conversation had that elegant vivacity and delicacy that characterized the sage Nestor of elder times, whose words fell like vernal snows as he spake to the people.

His serenity, and in no small degree, perhaps, his longevity, were owing to the permanency of his principles. In early life, he founded his political creed on the rights of man, and reposing his faith in the religion of his fathers, he felt none of those vacillations and changes so common in times of political or religious agitations. Mr. Carroll died near the close of the year 1832, in the ninety-sixth year of his age.

DANIEL BOONE.

DANIEL BOONE, one of the first adventurers who penetrated into the wilds of Kentucky, was born in Virginia, in 1737. He was, almost from his infancy, addicted to hunting in the woods. He emigrated early to North Carolina, then recently settled. Having determined to cross the wilderness bordering on the Cumberland mountains, in quest of the region of Kentucky, then little known, he set out on his expedition with five companions, May 1, 1769. June 7, they arrived at Red river, north of the Kentucky. A short time afterward, Boone and one of his companions, John Stewart, was captured by a party of savages. They soon escaped, but could discover no traces of their friends, who had returned home. Boone and Stewart would have been constrained to follow them, had not Squire Boone, the brother of Daniel, pursued their track from North Carolina, and relieved them with a few necessaries. Shortly afterward, Stewart was killed by the Indians, and the two Boones were left the only white men in the wilderness. They passed the winter in a cabin. In May, 1770, Boone's brother returned home. In July of the same year, however, he came back, according to agreement. They then traversed the country to the Cumberland river, and, the following year, returned to their families, with a determination of removing with them to Kentucky. In September, 1773, Boone commenced his removal to Kentucky, with his own, and five other families, and was joined by forty men, who placed themselves under his guidance. Being attacked by the Indians, six of his men were slain, and the cattle belonging to the party dispersed. The survivors returned, in consequence, to the settlements



Portrait of Daniel Boone, from a Painting in the Possession of Hon. J. K. Paulding.

on Clinch river, about forty miles from the scene of action. A company of North Carolina, having formed a plan of purchasing the lands on the south side of the Kentucky river from the southern Indians, employed Boone to buy a tract of the country, the limits of which were described to him. He performed the service, and soon after, made a road from the settlements on the Holston to the Kentucky river, notwithstanding the incessant attack of the Indians, in which four of his men were killed, and five wounded. In April, 1775, he built a fort at a salt-spring, on the southern bank of the Kentucky, where Boonesborough is now situated. It consisted of a blockhouse and several cabins, enclosed with palisades. In 1777, he sustained two sieges in Boonesborough, from the Indians, but repulsed them. In the following year, however, Feb. 7, Boone was taken prisoner by the savages, while hunting, with a number of his men. In May, they were conducted to Detroit, where they experienced great kindness from Governor Hamilton, the British commander of that post. He even offered the Indians one hundred pounds for their prisoner, in order that he might liberate him on parole, but they would not part with him, having conceived for him sentiments of great affection and respect. On his return, he was adopted by one of the principal chiefs at Chillicothe, and might have been happy in this situation, had not the thoughts of his wife and children continually kept alive the desire of escape. This he effected one morning, having arisen at the usual hunting hour, and departed apparently for the woods, but in reality for Boonesborough. He arrived there on the 20th of June, after a journey of one hundred and sixty miles, which he performed in four days, having eaten, it is said, but one meal during that time. On the 8th of August, a body of savages, to the number of four hundred and fifty, commanded by Canadian Frenchmen, and some of their own chiefs, invested the fort, with British colors flying. Boone was summoned to surrender, but announced his determination, and that of the garrison, who amounted to but fifty men, "to defend the fort as long as a man of them was alive." The enemy then resolved to obtain it by stratagem, and requested that nine of the principal persons of the garrison would come out and treat with them, promising terms so favorable that the invitation was accepted. After the articles of the treaty had been signed, Boone and his companions were told that it was customary, on such occasions, among the Indians, for two of them to shake each white man by the hand, in order to evince the sincerity of their friendship. This was also agreed to; and, accordingly, two Indians approached each of the nine, and, taking his hand, grappled him, with the intent of making him prisoner. Their object being then immediately perceived, Boone and his party extricated themselves, and retreated into the fort, amid a heavy fire from the savages. An attack was then quickly commenced, and continued until the 20th of August, when the enemy abandoned the siege. This was the last attempt of the Indians to possess themselves of Boonesborough. In October, as Boone was returning from the Blue Licks with his brother, the latter was slain, and Boone pursued by a party of Indians for three miles, by the aid of a dog; but, having killed the animal, he escaped. In 1782, the depredations of the savages increasing to an intolerable extent, Boone, with other militia officers, collected one hundred and seventy-six men, and went in pursuit of a large body, who had marched beyond the Blue Licks to a bend in the main fork of the Licking river, forty miles from Lexington. They overtook them August 19, but, being much inferior in numbers, were obliged to retreat. General Clark, then at the falls of the Ohio, immediately assembled a considerable number of men, and commenced the pursuit of the savages, accompanied by Boone. From that time until 1798, Boone resided alternately in Kentucky and in Virginia. In that year he removed to Upper Louisiana, where he received a grant from the Spanish authorities of two thousand acres of land. His children, friends, and followers, were also presented with eight hundred acres each.

He settled with them, on the Missouri river, at Charette, some distance beyond the inhabited parts of the country, where he followed his usual course of life, hunting and trapping for bears, until September, 1822, when he died, at the residence of his son, Major A. Boone, in Montgomery county, in the 85th year of his age. He had been gradually declining for some years previous to his decease. It is related, that, some time before that event, he had two coffins made out of a favorite cherry-tree, the first of which not fitting, he gave to a son-in-law; in the second he was buried, having bestowed on it a fine polish by a course of rubbing for several years.



BENJAMIN WEST.

BENJAMIN WEST, one of the most distinguished artists America has yet produced, was born near Springfield, Pennsylvania, October 10, 1738. His first essay in the arts was made when he was seven years old; for being left in charge of a sleeping child, he attempted to represent its features on paper, with pen and ink. His success was such as to call forth the admiration of his parents. Soon after this he procured from some Indians the red and yellow earths used by them for decorating their persons; and these with blue from his mother's pad of indigo, enabled him to give the colors of the objects pictured.

The first money received by young West for his labors as an artist, was from Mr. Wayne, for drawings on poplar boards; and Dr. Morris made him a present of a "few dollars to buy paints with." His first efforts at portrait-painting was at Lancaster. A gunsmith, named Henry, employed him to paint the death of Socrates, and loaned him the book to make him acquainted with

the event. A workman stood as a model for one of the figures. This led to the study of the human form, and showed the youth the importance of anatomy as connected with the arts of design.

In 1756, West's mother died; and in that year our painter left his birthplace, and came to Philadelphia. Here he pursued his professional avocations as a portrait-painter for some time and with marked success. After a while he visited New York, where he remained eleven months, constantly occupied; at this time a favorable opportunity occurring to visit Europe, West embarked for Italy, being then twenty-one years of age. At that time, the sight of an American artist, and that one too a quaker, was by no means common in Italy, and West was everywhere received with the attention to which his talents entitled him. At Rome, he met with the distinguished artist, Mengs, who treated him with great kindness, and even advised him as to a proper course to be pursued for his improvement. "See," said he, "and examine everything deserving of your attention here, and after making a few drawings of about half a dozen of the best statues, go to Florence, and observe what has been done for art in the collections there. Then proceed to Bologna, and study the works of the Carracci; afterward visit Parma, and examine attentively the pictures of Corregio; and then go to Venice, and view the productions of Tintoretto, Titian, and Paul Veronese. When you have made this tour, come back to Rome, and paint an historical composition to be exhibited to the Roman public."

After a severe illness of eleven months, West proceeded on the tour recommended by Mengs, and returning to Rome, painted his pictures of Cimon and Iphigenia, and Angelica and Medona. These procured for him academical honors. He now determined to visit England, and on the 20th of June, 1763, we find him at London. The commencement of his career in that city, is thus stated by Mr. Leslie: "When Mr. West arrived in London, the general opinion was so unfavorable to modern art, that it was scarcely thought possible for an artist to paint an historical or fancy picture worthy to hang up beside the old masters. Hogarth had produced his matchless pictures in vain. The connoisseur who would have ventured to place the inimitable scenes of the 'Marriage à la mode,' on his walls (I mean the pictures, the prints were in great request), would have hazarded most fearfully his reputation for taste. This prejudice against living genius continued until the arrival of West, and it must have required some courage in a young man at that time to make his appearance in England, in the character of an historical painter. One of the first pictures, if not the very first he produced, was from the story of Pylades and Orestes (there is an admirable copy of it in this country, painted by Mr. Sully). This picture attracted so much attention, that Mr. West's servant was employed from morning till night in opening the door to visitors, and the man received a considerable sum of money by showing it, while the master was obliged to content himself with empty praise. All admired, but no one dared to buy it. It was curious enough, however, that the reputation of this picture raised him into high favor as a portrait-painter.

West's talents thus becoming known, soon made him acquainted, among others, with the archbishop of York, for whom he painted his Agrippina. His success in the management of this subject, procured his presentation to George III. "The king received West with easy frankness, assisted him to place the Agrippina in a favorable light, removed the attendants, and brought in the queen, to whom he presented our quaker. He related to her majesty the history of the picture, and bade her notice the simplicity of the design and the beauty of the coloring. 'There is another noble Roman subject,' observed his majesty, 'the departure of Regulus from Rome—would it not make a fine picture?' 'It is a magnificent subject,' said the painter. 'Then,' replied the king, 'you shall paint it for me.' He turned with a smile to the queen, and



Death on the Pale Horse.—From a Painting by Benjamin West.

said, 'The archbishop made one of his sons read Tacitus to Mr. West, but I will read Livy to him myself—that part where he describes the departure of Regulus.' So saying, he read the passage very gracefully, and then repeated his command that the picture should be painted."

The *Regulus* was successful, and was followed by the "Death of Wolfe," in which he substituted the costume of the day for the classic dress. Mr West now suggested to the king a series of pictures on the progress of revealed religion, which were ordered. He divided his subject "into four dispensations; the Antediluvian, the Patriarchal, the Mosaical, and the Prophetical. They contained in all thirty-six subjects, eighteen of which belonged to the Old Testament, the rest to the New. They were all sketched, and twenty-eight were executed, for which West received in all £21,705. A work so varied, so extensive, and so noble in its nature, was never before undertaken by any painter."

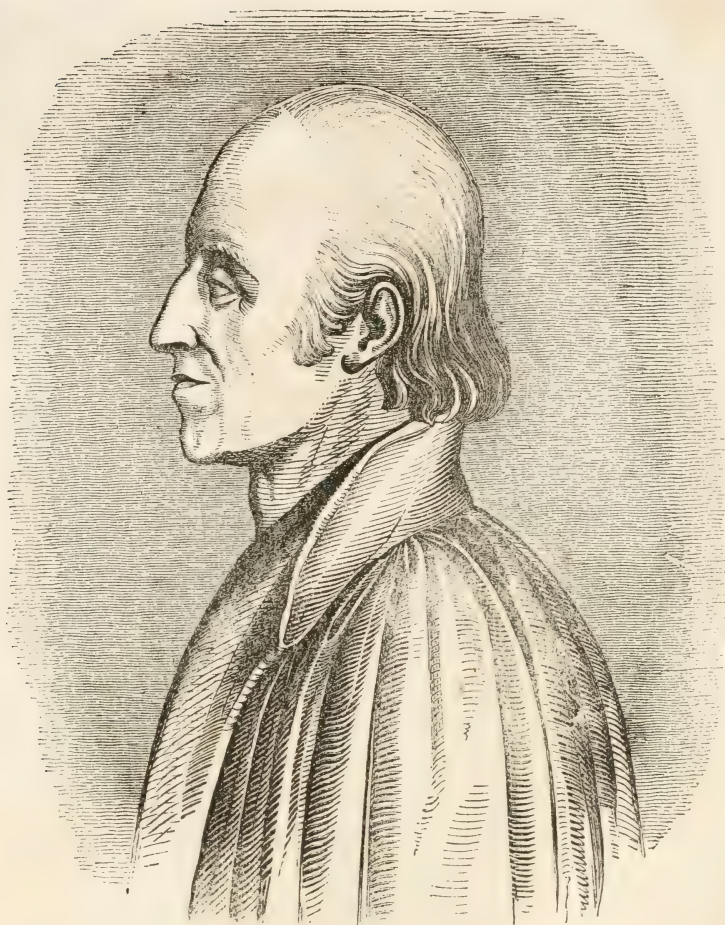
Another extensive series of historical pictures painted by West, was drawn from the reign of Edward III.; they were: 1. Edward III. embracing the black prince, after the battle of Cressy. 2. The Installation and order of the Garter. 3. The black prince receiving the king of France and his sons prisoners, at Poitiers. 4. St. George vanquishing the Dragon. 5. Queen Philippa defeating David of Scotland, in the battle of Neville's cross. 6. Queen Philippa interceding with Edward for the Burgesses of Calais. 7. King Edward forcing a passage of the Somme. 8. King Edward crowning Sir Eustace de Ribault at Calais. These works are very large. They were the fruit of long study and much labor, and with the exception of the *Death of Wolfe* (an engraving of which is placed on page 303) and the *Battle of La Hogue*, they were the best of all the numerous works of this artist.

On the death of Reynolds, West was chosen president of the Royal Academy, and delivered his inaugural address in March, 1792. In 1802, West was dismissed from employment by the successor of George III. "This extraordinary proceeding," says Galt, "rendered the studies of the best part of the artist's life useless, and deprived him of that honorable provision, the fruit of his talents and industry, on which he had counted for the repose of his declining years. For some time it affected him deeply, and he was at a loss what step to take." But he, however, still continued his professional pursuits, and painted the "Healing in the Temple," a copy of which he presented to the Pennsylvania hospital; this was followed by the "Descent of the Holy Ghost and Christ at the Jordan," ten feet by fourteen; the "Crucifixion," sixteen feet by twenty-eight; the "Ascension," twelve feet by eighteen; and the "Inspiration of St. Peter," of nearly the same size. Nor must we omit to mention his "Christ rejected," or his "Death on the Pale Horse," recently exhibited in the United States. West's health now began to decline. Domestic sorrow mingled with professional disappointment. Elizabeth Shelwell—for more than fifty years his kind and tender companion—died on the 6th of December, 1817, and West, seventy-nine years old, felt that he was soon to follow. His wife and he had loved each other some sixty years—had seen their children's children, and the world had no compensation to offer. He began to sink, and though still to be found at his easel, his hand had lost its early alacrity. It was evident that all this was to cease soon; that he was suffering a slow, and a general and easy decay. The venerable old man sat in his study among his favorite pictures, a breathing image of piety and contentment, awaiting calmly the hour of his dissolution. Without any fixed complaint, his mental faculties unimpaired, his cheerfulness uneclipsed, and with looks serene and benevolent, he expired 11th March, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age. He was buried beside Reynolds, Opie, and Barry, in St. Paul's cathedral. The pall was borne by noblemen, ambassadors, and academicians; his two sons and grandson were chief mourners; and sixty coaches brought up the splendid procession.



WILLIAM HERSCHEL.

WILLIAM HERSCHEL, one of the most distinguished astronomers of modern times, was born at Hanover, Germany, in 1738. His father, who was a musician, brought him up to his own profession, and, at the age of fourteen, he was placed in the band of the Hanoverian foot-guards. Toward the close of the seven years' war, when the French armies entered Hanover, young Herschel resolved to visit England, but not being able to obtain employment in London, he accepted a situation in the band of the Durham militia. When the regiment came to Doncaster, Mr. Herschel formed an acquaintance with Dr. Miller, an eminent composer and organist of that town. It happened about this time that an organist was also wanted at Halifax, and, by the advice of the doctor, his young friend offered himself as a candidate for the place, and was successful. In 1766, he removed from Yorkshire to Bath, where he was chosen organist at the Octagon chapel, and leader of the orchestra at the public rooms. Although enthusiastically fond of music, he had for some time devoted his leisure hours to the study of mathematics and astronomy: and, in 1779, having constructed a telescope, and begun a regular survey of the heavens, star by star, he discovered, March 13th, 1781, a new primary planet, which he named the Georgium Sidus, in honor of George III. The same year he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and had the gold medal awarded him for his discovery. His majesty now called Mr. Herschel from Bath, and gave him a house at Slough, with a pension to enable him to prosecute his favorite pursuits. After a long series of arduous and valuable labors, in 1802, he laid before the Royal Society a catalogue of five thousand new nebulae, nebulous stars, planetary nebulae, and clusters of stars, which he had discovered; and, in consequence of the important additions made by him to the stock of astronomical knowledge, received from the university of Oxford the honorary degree of doctor of laws—an honor which was followed up, in 1816, by the Guelphic order of knighthood from the king. He continued his astronomical observations till within a few years of his death, which took place in 1822. His highly gifted son, the present Sir John Herschel, pursues his father's scientific course with ardor and success.



JOHN FREDERIC OBERLIN.

JOHN FREDERIC OBERLIN was born at Strasburg in 1740. Fritz, as he was termed in his youth, was a lively, hearty boy, fond of innocent mirth and fun. He was partial to military spectacles, and used to frequent the garrison parade, his heart swelling at the sound of the music, and his step becoming firmer as he marched up and down with the soldiers. But there was no coarseness or ill-nature in his joyous disposition. One day in the market-place he saw a number of mischievous boys teasing a countrywoman, until, at last, they caused her to upset a basket of eggs which she was carrying. The poor woman cried at seeing the loss of her little property. Fritz darted forward, poured out indignant and severe reproaches, until the authors of the mischief slunk away, then, asking the woman to come home with him, he brought down a purse containing the savings of his pocket-money, which he emptied into her hand.

From the school under his father's care he passed to the university, and after a course of study chose the ministry as his profession. In 1762, when he was twenty-two years of age, he entered the household of M. Ziegenhagen, an em

ment surgeon of Strasburg, as tutor to his children. In this situation he continued three years; and when he quitted it he carried with him the love of his pupils, and retained the friendship of M. Ziegenhagen during life.

Two years more were passed in his father's house. During that time he was assiduous in his studies, occasionally assisting his father, and officiating as a minister. But he was anxiously looking out for some suitable employment on which he might expend his energies. Meantime, like many other ardent young minds in a similar situation, he endeavored to tie himself down to a severe course of study, and became more than temperate, almost ascetic in his habits. But his mind was not one qualified to become great in the learned world. "The study of languages," said he, in a letter to his learned brother, "requires a great memory, and my memory is a very poor one."

In 1767, he was installed pastor of Waldbach, an isolated canton in the Ban de la Roche, a part of the Vosges range of mountains. It was a barren region, its winter snow remaining from September to May, and to fill up the measure of wretchedness for the few inhabitants of the canton, it was laid waste during the "thirty years war," and again, after a short breathing time, in the reign of Louis XIV.

M. Stuber whom Oberlin call his "excellent predecessor," was obliged to resign his charge into the hands of Oberlin in consequence of his declining health. The situation was not a very inviting one. Stuber had just been able to stir the soil, and to throw in some seed of improvement. The old inhabitants were disturbed in their old ways, the young were just awakened to a sense of their deficiencies, with a kind of withering conviction that they could do little to supply them. Stuber had become acquainted with his parishioners, and had succeeded in gaining their confidence. But now here was a stranger, a young man, all bustle and activity, who thought he could do wonders among them, and wanted, forsooth, to turn everything topsy-turvy. Oberlin committed an error natural enough to an ardent young mind. He went too eagerly to work. He showed them their deficiencies and their wants too hastily; thus tacitly wounding self-complacency, and rousing up hatred and jealousy, until the peasantry, in their ignorant stupidity, agreed to waylay and beat him, and at another time to duck him in a cistern. His presence of mind and authoritative mildness disconcerted them. But he also saw his error, and that he must gain the hearts of the people before he could do any good with them. So he went from house to house until the impression began to be general that the new pastor was, after all, not unworthy of their confidence, and that he meant them well. Then he began his labors of amelioration with some prospect of success. "The Ban de la Roche had no roads. The few passes in the mountains were constantly broken up by the torrents, or obstructed by the loosened earth which fell from the overhanging rocks. The river Bruche, which flows through the canton, had no bridge but one of stepping-stones. Within a few miles of this isolated district was Strasburg, abounding in wealth and knowledge, and all the refinements of civilization. He determined to open a regular communication between the Ban de la Roche and that city; to find there a market for the produce of his own district, and to bring thence in exchange new comforts and new means of improvement. He assembled the people, explained his objects, and proposed that they should blast the rocks to make a wall a mile and a half in length, to support a road by the side of the river, over which a bridge must also be made. The peasants, one and all, declared the thing was impossible; and every one excused himself from engaging in such an unreasonable scheme. Oberlin exhorted them, reasoned with them, appealed to them as husbands and fathers—but in vain. He at last threw a pickaxe upon his shoulder and went to work himself, assisted by a trusty servant. He had soon the support of fellow-laborers. He regarded not the thorns by which

his hands were torn, nor the loose stones which fell from the rocks and bruised them. His heart was in the work, and no difficulty could stop him. He devoted his own little property to the undertaking; he raised subscriptions among his old friends; tools were brought for all who were willing to use them. On the Sunday the good pastor labored in his calling as a teacher of sacred truths; but on the Monday he rose with the sun to his work of practical benevolence, and marching at the head of two hundred of his flock, went with renewed vigor to his conquest over the natural obstacles to the civilization of the district. In three years the road was finished, the bridge was built, and the communication with Strasburg was established. The ordinary results of intercourse between a poor and a wealthy, a rude and an intelligent community, were soon felt. The people of the Ban de la Roche obtained tools, an Oberlin taught their young men the necessity of learning other trades besides that of cultivating the earth. He apprenticed the boys to carpenters, masons, glaziers, blacksmiths, and cartwrights, at Strasburg. In a few years these arts, which were wholly unknown to the district, began to flourish. The tools were kept in good order, wheel-carriages became common, the wretched cabins were converted into snug cottages, the people felt the value of these great changes, and they began to regard their pastor with unbounded reverence."

Oberlin took up all the plans of Stuber with regard to agriculture and education, but on a more extended basis. In improving the agriculture of the district he attacked the peasantry on their own ground, and had to encounter all their most obstinate prejudices. "It was useless to reason with them; he instructed them by example. He had two large gardens near his parsonage crossed by footpaths. The soil was exceedingly poor, but he trenched and manured the ground, with a thorough knowledge of what he was about, and planted it with fruit-trees. The trees flourished, to the great astonishment of the peasants; and they at length entreated their pastor to tell them his secret. He explained his system, and gave them slips out of his nursery. Planting and grafting soon became the taste of the district, and in a few years the bare and desolate cottages were surrounded by smiling orchards. The potatoes of the canton, the chief food of the people, had so degenerated that the fields yielded the most scanty produce. The peasants maintained that the ground was in fault; Oberlin, on the contrary, procured new seed. The soil of the mountains was really peculiarly favorable to the cultivation of this root, and the good minister's crop, of course, succeeded. The force of example was again felt, and abundance of potatoes soon returned to the canton. In like manner, Oberlin introduced the culture of Dutch clover and flax; and at length overcame the most obstinate prejudice in converting unprofitable pastures into arable land. Like all agricultural improvers he taught the people the value of manure, and the best modes of reducing every substance into useful compost. The maxim, which he incessantly repeated, was, 'Let nothing be lost!' He established an agricultural society, and founded prizes for the most skilful farmers. In ten years from his acceptance of the pastoral office in the Ban de la Roche, he had opened communications between each of the five parishes of the canton and with Strasburg, introduced some of the most useful arts into a district where they had been utterly neglected, and raised the agriculture of these poor mountaineers from a barbarous tradition into a practical science."

He carried the same energy and the same enlarged spirit into the mental education of the people. He stands out conspicuously and honorably as the founder of *infant* schools. Stuber had built a school-house—but it was a hut constructed of unseasoned logs, was soon in a ruinous condition, and was yet the only school-house of the five parishes. The people, however, were unwilling to be at the trouble and expense of building another. Oberlin applied to his friends at Strasburg for contributions took on himself the responsibility, and

soon a new school-house was completed at Waldbach. In a few years the inhabitants voluntarily came forward to erect school-houses in each of the other four parishes. Oberlin introduced an improved system of education, established prizes for masters and scholars, printed school-books, and gave the people an almanac.

Oberlin had scarcely been settled at Waldbach before he felt the necessity and importance of being married. While he was anxiously considering how and where he might get a wife who would have intelligence and spirit to aid him in his plans of usefulness, without being deterred by the ignorance and squalor around her, his cousin, accompanied by his sister, paid him a visit, the former having been ordered to the mountains for her health. Oberlin and his cousin were married in 1768. She proved a worthy and affectionate wife. Her death in 1783, was a severe trial to her husband, who cherished her memory to the close of his useful life. Besides other domestic trials, such as the death of his eldest son, a fine manly youth, who had joined the French army, and was killed in 1793, aged twenty-one, Oberlin did not escape, what no man who takes an active part in society can possibly escape, misrepresentation. He was accused of favoring an emigration from Alsace and Lorraine, which rendered him for a time an object of suspicion to the authorities; and he was also accused of sheltering some of the proscribed individuals who fled, during the revolutionary reign of terror, to the Ban de la Roche. He certainly did protect some of those unhappy individuals, at a considerable risk to himself; but his motives were the promptings of humanity, not of political zeal. But he incurred a greater danger in 1794. He and a friend, the pastor of the adjoining village of Rothau, who had imbibed his spirit, and was carrying on the work of improvement with him, were arrested under a general order. They were carried to Selestadt; but while other clergymen who were arrested were consigned to prison, he and his friend were allowed to reside at an hotel, and they dined at the table d'hôte with the *administrateurs* of the district. These troubles showed what a change had passed over the people, who, when he came first among them, looked at him with scowling eyes, and even intended to do him bodily harm. Now they were distressed about their dear pastor: one of the testimonials of the municipality affirmed, that since he had become pastor of Waldbach he had devoted "all that he had and all that he is" to promote their temporal and spiritual welfare. The fall of Robespierre set him and his friend free from the arrest, and restored them to their parishioners.

The last twenty-six years of Oberlin's life (from 1800 till his death) were spent in the enjoyment of the love of his parishioners and the respect of friends and strangers. Nor was his example without its influence, as the memoirs of Felix Neff testify. But though Oberlin became old, he never became idle. He continued to work while it was called to-day. He had less occasion indeed to exert himself as his vigor decayed, for what he had planted was ripened all around him into fruit. His word, too, had the force of law, for his character forbade opposition; his gray hairs were not merely "a crown of glory," but the badge of his patriarchal authority.

But the time drew on when this good man should die. For five years before his death he suffered considerably from infirmity, and often wished, if it was God's will, that he should receive his dismissal. But at last death did come, Oberlin died 1st of June, 1826, aged eighty-six, his end being tranquil and happy. When he came to Waldbach, it was a place where Crabbe might have found ample scope for the exercise of his stern, literal, faithful pencil—he left it a scene where Wordsworth might delight to meditate. His grave-stone in the "churchyard among the mountains" records the simply expressive fact, that he was for "fifty-nine years the Father of the Ban de la Roche."



JOHN CARTWRIGHT.

JOHN CARTWRIGHT, an English gentleman, celebrated for his exertions in the cause of political reform, was born in 1740, at Marnham, Nottinghamshire, of an ancient family. His early education was rather deficient; but he made some progress in mechanics and practical mathematics. He entered the navy, and became a first lieutenant in 1766. In 1774, his attention was turned to politics. In his *Letters on American Independence*, written in this year, he advocated a union between the colonies and the mother state, under separate legislatures, and argued this great question on the foundation of natural, inherent right; maintaining "that the liberty of man is not derived from charters, but from God, and that it is original in every one." In 1775, he was appointed major of the Nottinghamshire militia, and, after several ineffectual attempts, on the part of the government, to remove him from that post, his dismissal was finally accomplished in 1792, in consequence of an act of parliament. In the American war, Lord Howe, was desirous of having him with him in America; but Major Cartwright, although always eager for promotion in the navy, refused the proposal, alleging that he could not fight in a cause which he disapproved. From this time he devoted himself to the two great objects of annual parliaments and universal suffrage. In 1779, he succeeded in the establishment of a Society for Constitutional Information, and was the author of a *Declaration of Rights*, distributed by the society, which, Sir William Jones said, "ought to be written in letters of gold." The French revolution was warmly welcomed by Cartwright, as by other friends of liberty. The alliance of sovereigns, which soon followed, he considered equally irreconcilable with policy and with national justice. The subsequent prosecutions against the friends of reform, the fate of Muir and of Holt, occasioned no small dismay among the people. In the trials of Tooke, Hardy, Thelwall, and others, Cartwright took a great interest, was

present as a witness, and displayed much openness, fearlessness, and firmness. By his writings, public addresses, &c., he continued to promote the work of reform, and constitutional liberty; and, as late as 1819, he was tried for conspiracy and sedition, for advising the inhabitants of Birmingham to send what he called their "*legislatorial attorney*" to the house; but he escaped with a fine of one hundred pounds. Major Cartwright was not a political reformer only. The plan of making the slave-trade piracy, is said to have been first developed in his Letters on the Slave-Trade. The information which he furnished to Daines Barrington, respecting the possibility of approaching the north pole; his plan for a perpetual supply of English oak for the navy, which has since been partially adopted, and several other useful projects and inventions, are sufficient evidences of his enterprise, activity, and diversified knowledge. He died in 1824, in the 84th year of his age. He has been described as alike just in all the relations of life, as a citizen, a politician, a husband, and a friend; disinterested, firm, and fearless; and Fox, upon presenting one of his petitions to the house, remarked, "He is one, whose enlightened mind, and profound constitutional knowledge place him in the highest rank of public characters, and whose purity of principle, and consistency of conduct through life, command the most respectful attention to his opinions." The most prominent traits of his character are enterprise, firmness, and perseverance. He was a fruitful writer, quick, ingenious, powerful in argument, and sometimes eloquent. His language is plain, pure, and strong.

A statue of bronze, to the memory of Major Cartwright, an engraving of which is placed at the head of this sketch, was erected, in 1832, by public subscription, in Burton Crescent, where the venerable reformer for many years resided.



JOHN GASPAR LAVATER.

JOHN GASPAR LAVATER was born in 1741, at Zurich in Switzerland, where his father enjoyed the reputation of a skillful physician and good citizen. The severity of his mother somewhat depressed the mind of the boy, who was endowed with a lively imagination, and he early gave himself up to solitary reveries. While yet at school, he was persuaded that he had received direct answers to his prayers. His imagination, even at that early period, appears to have been so actively employed, that he never acquired much knowledge of philology or classical antiquity.

In 1763, Lavater travelled, in company with Fuseli (afterward a distin-

guished painter in London) to Leipsic and Berlin, and became acquainted with the scholars and theologians of northern Germany. In 1764, he returned to his native city, and, in 1767, appeared as a poet in his "*Schweizerlieder*," which, as well as his "*Aussichten in die Ewigkeit*" (1768), gained him many admirers. In 1769, he was appointed one of the ministers at the orphan church at Zurich. His sermons were rendered attractive by their pleasing style, his enthusiastic zeal, and a certain mysticism which always characterized him. They were printed in 1772, and were admired even in foreign countries. All his activity was, in fact, devoted to the service of religion, until he undertook his work on physiognomy.

Lavater had become acquainted with a great number of persons, and his lively imagination had led him to the conclusion that there exists a much greater connection between the internal man and the external expression in the face than is generally supposed. He reduced this external expression of disposition and character to a system, and considered the lines of the countenance as sure indications of the temper. He had adopted this idea in 1769, and collected the features of distinguished people from all parts of the world. His great work, in four quarto volumes, under the modest title of "*Physiognomical Fragments*" (1775 et seq.), made him known all over Europe. It was rendered valuable by the numerous portraits it contains, mostly well executed by some of the first engravers of Germany. Lavater had added explanations, in a poetical style, full of enthusiastic exclamations. As may easily be imagined, a theory so novel found warm admirers, whose zeal often rendered it ridiculous, and Lichtenberg satirized it in his "*Essay on Queues and Tails*," one of his most successful compositions. Lichtenberg's exclamations on the contour of a pig's tail, or a happily-adjusted queue, equal the raptures of Lavater's viewing the physiognomy of an Alexander! According to Las Casas, Napoleon declared himself convinced, by long experience, that no reliance was to be placed on the expression of the face—an opinion which is perhaps true to a greater extent in respect to talents than disposition. Lavater himself seems to have given up his theory in a great degree. He published several other works, including poems and works of religious instruction; and his reputation became so great, that his journeys resembled triumphs. He refused better appointments in foreign countries, and became minister of St. Peter's church in Zurich.

During the French Revolution, Lavater spoke with boldness against the new order of things, the Swiss directory, &c., and was finally transported to Basle, in 1796. He was again set at liberty; but, on the capture of Zurich, September 26, 1799, by the French under Massena (who drove out Suwarrow and his Russians), while occupied in the street, assisting the distressed, and giving refreshment to exhausted soldiers, he received a shot in his side. According to the historian Raoul-Rochette, neither a Frenchman nor a Russian was his murderer, but he received the wound at the hands of a political bigot whom he recognised: such, however, was Lavater's spirit of forgiveness and irrepressible charity, that he never divulged the assassin's name, but carried the horrible secret with him to the tomb! He lingered above a year, during which he wrote several works, and died January 2, 1801, aged sixty.

Lavater was one of the most virtuous of men, so that a biographer says of him: "Had he lived in early times, he would now be adored as a saint, because everything which the church requires from a saint he had in perfection—charity, love of mankind, and unrelaxing zeal in the cause of Christ." He did much for practical theology. Lavater owed little to learning, but drew chiefly from himself. His work on physiognomy has been several times translated into English. Of the English translations, we may mention Hunter's, in five quarto volumes (London, 1789). A valuable French edition appeared at Paris in 1809.



NATHANAEL GREENE.

NATHANAEL GREENE, a major-general in the American army, was born May 22, 1742, near the town of Warwick in Rhode Island. His father was an anchor-smith, and, at the same time a quaker preacher, whose ignorance, combined with the fanaticism of the times, made him pay little attention to the worldly learning of his children, though he was very careful of their moral and religious instruction. The fondness for knowledge, however, of young Greene was such, that he devoted all the time he could spare to its acquisition, and employed all his trifling gains in procuring books. His propensity for the life of a soldier was early evinced by his predilection for works on military subjects. He made considerable proficiency in the exact sciences; and, after he had attained his twentieth year, he added a tolerable stock of legal knowledge to his other acquisitions. In the year 1770, he was elected a member of the state legislature, and, in 1774, enrolled himself as a private in a company called the Kentish guards. After the battle of Lexington, the state of Rhode Island raised what was termed an army of observation, in order to assist the forces collected in Massachusetts, for the purpose of confining the British within the limits of Boston, and chose Greene its commander, with the title of major-general. His elevation from the ranks to the head of three regiments, may give some idea of the estimation in which his military talents was held.

June 6, 1775, Greene assumed his command before the lines of Boston; soon after, General Washington arrived, to take the command in chief of the American forces. Between these two distinguished men an intimacy soon commenced, which was never interrupted. Greene accepted a commission from Congress of brigadier-general, although, under the state, he held that of major-

general ; preferring the former, as it promised a larger sphere of action, and the pleasure of serving under the immediate command of Washington.

When the American army had followed the enemy to New York, after the evacuation of Boston, they encamped, partly in New York and partly on Long Island. The division on the island was under the orders of Greene ; but at the time of its unfortunate affair with the enemy, he was suffering under severe sickness, and General Sullivan was in command. When he had sufficiently recovered his health, he joined the retreating army, having previously been promoted to the rank of major-general, and was appointed to command the troops in New Jersey destined to watch the movements of a strong detachment of the British, which had been left on Staten Island. December 26, 1776, when Washington surprised the English at Trenton, Greene commanded the left wing of the American forces, which was the first that reached the town, and, having seized the enemy's artillery, cut off their retreat to Princeton. Next summer, Sir William Howe having embarked with a large force at New York, for the purpose of landing on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake, and thence marching to Philadelphia, Washington hastened to oppose him ; and, September 11, the battle of the Brandywine took place, in which the Americans were defeated. In this affair, Greene commanded the vanguard, together with Sullivan, and it became his duty to cover the retreat, in which he fully succeeded.

After General Howe had obtained possession of Philadelphia, his forces in consequence of this victory, encamped at Germantown, where an attack was made upon it by Washington, October 4, 1777, in which Greene commanded the left wing. The disastrous issue of this attempt is well known ; but it has been asserted, that the left wing was the only part of the American army which had the good fortune to effect the service allotted it that day. The next service upon which General Greene was engaged, was that of endeavoring to prevent Lord Cornwallis from collecting supplies, for which he had been detached into the Jerseys, with three thousand men ; but, before Greene could bring him to an action, he had received reinforcements, which gave him so great a superiority, that the American general was recalled by the commander-in-chief.

In March, of the following year, Greene, at the solicitation of Washington, accepted the appointment of quartermaster-general, on two conditions ; that he should retain his right of command in the time of action, and that he should have the choice of two assistants. At the battle of Monmouth, in the ensuing month of June, he led the right wing of the second line, and mainly contributed to the partial success of the Americans. After this, he continued engaged in discharging the duties of his station until August, when he was sent to join Sullivan, who, with the forces under his command, aided by the French fleet under D'Estaing, was preparing to make an attempt upon Newport in Rhode Island, then in possession of the enemy. The command of the left wing of the troops was assigned to Greene. The enterprise, however, failed, in consequence of some misunderstanding between Sullivan and D'Estaing ; and the consequent retreat of the American army was covered by Greene, who repulsed an attack of the enemy with half their number.

When Washington, to protect the garrisons on the North river, repaired to West Point, he left Greene in command of the army in New Jersey. He had not been long in that command, before he was attacked, near Springfield, by a force much superior to his, under Sir Henry Clinton ; but the enemy were repulsed, though they burned the village. This affair happened June 23. October 6, he was appointed to succeed the traitor Arnold in the command at West Point. In this station, however, he continued only until the 14th of the same month, when he was chosen by General Washington to take the place of General Gates, in the chief direction of the southern army. From this moment, when he was placed in a situation where he could exercise his genius without con-

trol, dates the most brilliant portion of Greene's career. The ability, prudence, and firmness, which he here displayed, have caused him to be ranked, in the scale of our revolutionary generals, second only to Washington. December 2, 1780, Greene arrived at the encampment of the American forces at Charlotte, and, on the 4th, assumed the command. After the battle of the Cowpens, gained by Morgan, January 17, 1781, he effected a junction with the victorious general, having previously been engaged in recruiting his army, which had been greatly thinned by death and desertion; but the numbers of Cornwallis were still so superior, that he was obliged to retreat into Virginia, which he did with a degree of skill that has been the theme of the highest eulogy. He, soon afterward, however, returned to North Carolina, with an accession of force, and, March 15, encountered Cornwallis at Guilford courthouse, where he was defeated; but the loss of the enemy was greater than his, and no advantages accrued to them from the victory. On the contrary, Cornwallis, a few days afterward, commenced a retrograde movement toward Wilmington, leaving many of his wounded behind him, and was followed for some time by Greene. Desisting, however, from the pursuit, the latter marched into South Carolina, and a battle took place, April 25, between him and Lord Rawdon, near Camden, in which he was again unsuccessful, though again the enemy were prevented by him from improving their victory, and, not long after, were obliged to retire.

May 22, having previously reduced some of the forts and garrisons in South Carolina, he commenced the siege of Ninety-Six, but in June the approach of Lord Rawdon compelled him to raise it, and retreat to the extremity of the state. Expressing a determination "to recover South Carolina, or die in the attempt," he again advanced, when the British forces were divided, and Lord Rawdon was pursued, in his turn, to his encampment at Orangeburg, where he was offered battle by his adversary, which was refused. September 8, Greene obtained a victory over the British forces under Colonel Stewart, at Eutaw Springs, which completely prostrated the power of the enemy in South Carolina. Greene was presented by Congress with a British standard and a gold medal, as a testimony of their sense of his services on this occasion. This was the last action in which Greene was engaged. During the rest of the war, however, he continued in his command, struggling with the greatest difficulties from the want of supplies, and the mutinous disposition of some of his troops.

When peace released him from his duties, General Greene returned to his home in Rhode Island; and his journey thither, almost at every step, was marked by some private or public testimonial of gratitude and regard. On his arrival at Princeton, where Congress was then sitting, that body unanimously resolved, that "two pieces of field ordnance, taken from the British army at the Cowpens, Augusta, or Eutaw," should be presented to him by the commander-in-chief. In October, 1785, Greene repaired, with his family, to Georgia, some valuable grants of lands near Savannah having been made to him by that state. He died June 19, 1786, in his forty-fifth year, in consequence of an inflammation of the brain, contracted by exposure to the rays of an intense sun.

General Greene possessed, in a great degree, not only the common quality of physical courage, but that fortitude and unbending firmness of mind, which are given to few, and which enabled him to bear up against the most cruel reverses, and struggle perseveringly with, and finally surmount, the most formidable difficulties. He was ever collected in the most trying situations, and prudence and judgment were distinguished traits in his character. In his disposition, he was mild and benevolent; but when it was necessary, he was resolutely severe. No officer of the revolutionary army possessed a higher place in the confidence and affection of Washington, and, probably, none would have been so well calculated to succeed him, if death had deprived his country of his services during the revolutionary struggle.



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, the third president of the United States, was, as he himself states, in his memoirs, of Welsh descent, by the father, his mother being a Randolph;—one of the seven sons settled in Goochland, Virginia. His father, Peter Jefferson, was born in 1708, and married in 1739. He settled on an estate called Shadwell, in Albemarle county, where Thomas was born, on the 13th of April, 1743. His father, who was a man of some distinction in the colony, died in 1757, leaving a widow, with two sons and six daughters. Thomas, the eldest, inherited the property of Monticello, upon which he lived, when in private life, and where he died.

Mr. Jefferson was regularly educated for the profession of the law, and entered William and Mary college in 1760. Seven years afterward he was admitted to the bar, and continued practising with distinguished success, until the Revolution broke out and closed the courts. He was a sound jurist, and an able debater. He possessed all the mental requisites for a great speaker, but his voice was too weak to be heard in a large assembly. Hence he never adventured in the brilliant field of popular oratory.

In 1765, while yet a student, Jefferson heard the celebrated speech of Patrick Henry against the stamp-act; and fired by its doctrines, he at once stood forth the avowed champion of American freedom. So manifest were his talents, that in 1769 he was elected a member of the Virginia legislature, and became at once active and popular, and where he made strong but unsuccessful efforts for the emancipation of the slaves. He filled that station until the period of the Revolution, when he was called to the performance of more exalted duties in the national council.

He was married in January, 1772, to Mrs. Martha Skelton, a wealthy widow of twenty-three, who was the daughter of John Wales, an eminent Virginia lawyer.

When the system of committees of correspondence was established in 1773, Mr. Jefferson was a member of the first committee in Virginia, and was very active with his pen. In 1774 his powerfully-written pamphlet was published, called "A Summary View of the Rights of British America." It was addressed to the king, and was published in England, under the auspices of Edmund Burke.

He was elected a delegate to represent Virginia in the continental congress of 1775, and for several years he was one of the most efficient members of that body. He soon became distinguished among the men of talents there, although comparatively young; and when, in the succeeding year, a committee was appointed to draught a Declaration of Independence, he was chosen one of the members. Although the youngest member of the committee, he was appointed chairman, and was requested by the others to draw up the instrument, which he did, and his draught was adopted, with a very few verbal amendments, on the 4th of July, 1776. This instrument forms an everlasting monument to his memory, and gives, by far, a wider range to the fame of his talents and patriotism, than eloquent panegyric, or sculptured epitaph.

During the summer of 1776, he was elected to a seat in the Virginia assembly, and, desirous of serving his own state, he resigned his seat in Congress, and returned to Virginia. He was soon afterward appointed a joint commissioner with Dr. Franklin and Silas Deane, for negotiating treaties with France, but circumstances caused him to decline the acceptance of the proffered honor, and he continued in Virginia during the remaining period of the Revolution, actively engaged in the service of his state. He received a third election to Congress, but declined it, and was succeeded by Benjamin Harrison, the father of the late president.

From the early part of 1777 to the middle of 1779, Mr. Jefferson was assiduously employed, conjointly with George Wythe and Edmund Pendleton, on a commission for revising the laws of Virginia. The duty was a most arduous one; and to Mr. Jefferson belongs the imperishable honor of being the first to propose, in the legislature of Virginia, the laws forbidding the importation of slaves; converting estates tail into fee simple; annulling the rights of primogeniture; establishing schools for general education; and confirming the rights of freedom in religious opinion.

Congress having resolved not to suffer the prisoners captured at Saratoga, under Burgoyne, to leave the United States, until the convention, entered into by Gates and Burgoyne, should be ratified by the British government, they were divided, and sent to the different states, to be provided for during the interval. A division of them was sent, early in 1779, into the interior of Virginia, near the residence of Mr. Jefferson; and his benevolent feelings were strongly exhibited by his sympathy for these enemies of his country. The prisoners were in great distress, and Mr. Jefferson and his friends did all in their power to alleviate their sufferings. An apprehended scarcity of provisions determined Governor Patrick Henry to remove them to another part of the state, or out of it entirely. At this the officers and men were greatly distressed, and Mr. Jefferson wrote a touching appeal to the governor in their behalf, and they were allowed to remain.

In June, 1779, Mr. Jefferson succeeded Mr. Henry as governor of Virginia, and the close of his administration was a period of great difficulty and danger. His state became the theatre of predatory warfare, the infamous Arnold having entered it with British and tory troops, and commenced spreading desolation with fire and sword along the James river. Richmond, the capital, was

partly destroyed, and Jefferson and his council narrowly escaped capture. He tried, but in vain, to get possession of the person of Arnold, but the wily traitor was too cautious for him.

Very soon after his retirement to private life, Tarleton, who attempted to capture the members of the legislature convened at Charlottesville, a short distance from Mr. Jefferson's residence, came very near taking him prisoner. Jefferson had sent his family away in his carriage, and remained to attend to some matters in his dwelling, when he saw the cavalry ascending a hill toward his house. He mounted a fleet horse, dashed through the woods, and reached his family in safety.

M. de Marbois, secretary of the French legation in the United States, having questioned Mr. Jefferson respecting the resources, &c., of his native state, he wrote, in 1781, his celebrated work entitled "Notes on Virginia." The great amount of information which it contains, and the simple perspicuity of its style, made its author exceedingly popular in Europe as a writer and man of science, in addition to his character as a statesman.

In 1782 he was appointed a minister plenipotentiary to assist others in negotiating a treaty of peace with Great Britain; but information of the preliminaries having been signed, reached Congress before his departure, and he did not go. He was soon after elected a delegate to Congress, and was chairman of the committee, in 1783, to whom the treaty with Great Britain was referred. On their report, the treaty was unanimously ratified.

In 1784, he wrote an essay on coinage and currency for the United States, and to him we are indebted for the convenient denominations of our federal money, the dollar as a unit, and the system of decimals.

In May of this year he was appointed with Adams and Franklin, a minister to negotiate treaties of commerce with foreign nations. In company with his eldest daughter, he reached Paris in August. Dr. Franklin having obtained leave to return home, Mr. Jefferson was appointed to succeed him as minister at the French court, and he remained in France, until October, 1789. While there, he became popular among the literati, and his society was courted by the leading writers of the day.

During his absence the constitution had been formed, and under it Washington had been elected and inaugurated president of the United States. His visit home was under leave of absence, but Washington offered him a seat in his cabinet as secretary of state, and gave him his choice to remain in that capacity or return to France. He chose to remain, and was one of the most efficient aids to the president during the stormy period of his first administration. He differed in opinion with Washington respecting the kindling revolution in France, but he agreed with him on the question of the neutrality of the United States. His bold avowal of democratic sentiments, and his expressed sympathies with the struggling populace of France in their aspirations for republicanism made him the leader of the party opposed to the administration of Washington, and in 1793 he resigned his seat in the cabinet.

In 1796, he was the republican candidate for president, in opposition to John Adams. Mr. Adams succeeded, and Mr. Jefferson was elected vice-president. In 1800 he was again nominated for president, and received a majority of votes over Mr. Adams. Aaron Burr was on the ticket with him, and received an equal number of votes; but on the thirty-sixth balloting, two of Burr's friends withdrew, and Mr. Jefferson was elected.

Mr. Jefferson's administration continued eight years, he having been elected for a second term. The most prominent measures of his administration, were, the purchase of Louisiana from France, the embargo on the commerce and ocean-navigation of the United States, the non-intercourse and non-importation systems, the gun-boat experiment, the suppression of Burr's expedition down

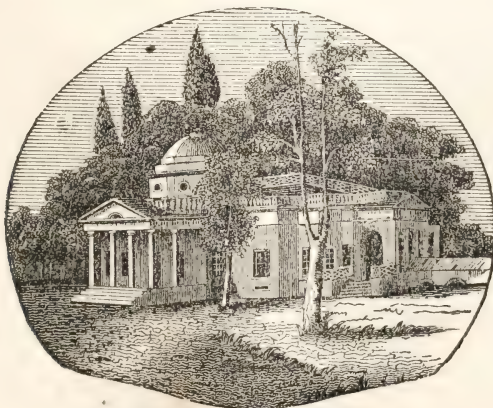
the Mississippi river, and the sending of an exploring company to the region of the Rocky Mountains, and westward to the Pacific ocean. Mr. Jefferson also introduced the practice of communicating with Congress by message, instead of by a personal address; a practice followed by all the presidents since his time. The foreign relations of the United States during the whole time of his administration were in a very perplexing condition, yet he managed with so much firmness, that he kept other powers at bay, and highly exalted our republic among the family of nations.

At the close of his second presidential term, Mr. Jefferson retired to private life, and amid the quiet scenes of Monticello, he spent the remaining seventeen years of his being, in philosophical and agricultural pursuits. Through his instrumentality, a university was founded in 1818, at Charlottesville, near Monticello, of which he was rector until his death, and a liberal patron as far as his means would allow.

Toward the close of his life, his pecuniary affairs became embarrassed, and he was obliged to sell his library, which Congress purchased for thirty thousand dollars. A short time previous to his death, he received permission from the legislature of Virginia to dispose of his estate by lottery, to prevent its being sacrificed to pay his debts. He did not live to see it consummated.

In the spring of 1826, his bodily infirmities greatly increased, and in June he was confined wholly to his bed. About the first of July he seemed free from disease, and his friends had hopes of his recovery; but it was his own conviction that he should die, and he gave directions accordingly. On the third he inquired the day of the month. On being told, he expressed an ardent desire to live until the next day, to breathe the air of the fiftieth anniversary of his country's independence. His wish was granted; and on the morning of the fourth, after having expressed his gratitude to his friends and servants for their care, he said with a distinct voice, "I resign myself to my God, and my child to my country." These were his last words, and about noon on that glorious day he expired, being a little over eighty-three years of age.

Mr. Jefferson's manner was simple, but dignified, and his conversational powers were of the rarest value. He was exceedingly kind and benevolent, an indulgent master to his servant, liberal and friendly to his neighbors. He possessed remarkable equanimity of temper, and it is said that he was never seen in a passion. His friendship was lasting and ardent; and he was confiding and never distrustful. In religion he was a freethinker; in morals, pure and unspotted; in politics, patriotic, honest, ardent, and benevolent.



Residence of Thomas Jefferson, Monticello.



ANTHONY WAYNE.

ANTHONY WAYNE, a distinguished general in the American revolutionary army, was born in Easton, Chester county, Pennsylvania, January 1, 1745. His father was a farmer of great respectability, and passed a long life of usefulness to his country, having frequently occupied a seat in the provincial legislature, and repeatedly distinguished himself in expeditions against the Indians. His grandfather was a warm friend of liberal principles, and commanded a squadron of dragoons under King William at the memorable battle of the Boyne. He emigrated to America in 1722.

The subject of this sketch received a good education, though for some time after his entrance into school, he spent much more time in planning and executing military amusements, than at his books; but, in consequence of a threat of his father to consign him to the drudgery of the farm, he applied himself assiduously to study, and, in mathematics, attained great proficiency. After leaving the Philadelphia academy, at eighteen years of age, he took up his residence in his native county, and commenced the business of a surveyor, in which he acquired great reputation and success, devoting also a portion of his time to practical astronomy and engineering. On these subjects he left manuscripts, which have attained high commendation from adequate judges. He likewise filled some county offices, and took a very active part in the preparation for the struggle which resulted in the independence of these United States. He was one of the provincial deputies who, early in the year 1774, were chosen by the different counties of Pennsylvania to take into consideration the alarming state of affairs between Great Britain and her colonies, and report concerning it; and a member of the Pennsylvania convention which shortly afterward assembled at Philadelphia, and excited powerful emulation in the other colonies. In the same year, he was chosen a representative of Chester county, in the provincial legislature, and, in the summer of 1775, was appointed a member of the committee of safety, to whom the duty appertained of calling into actual service the *associators* (as they were termed), and providing for the defence of the province against invasion from abroad and insurrection at home. Being

desirous of serving his country in a military capacity, to which his natural bent was strong, he retired from civil employment in September, 1775, and raised a company of volunteers, of which he was unanimously elected colonel. In January of the ensuing year, he was appointed by Congress colonel of one of the regiments which they had resolved to raise in Pennsylvania, and, at the opening of the campaign, received orders to join the army under General Lee, at New York. Thence he proceeded with his regiment to Canada, and shared in the unsuccessful attack upon the enemy at Three Rivers (conducted by General Thompson), on which occasion he was wounded, and distinguished himself for his bravery and good conduct in uniting and bringing off the broken troops. After the retreat from Canada, and the departure of Gates to join Washington's army, he was intrusted by General Schuyler, with the command of the fortresses of Ticonderoga and Mount Independence. February 21, 1777, he was promoted by Congress to the rank of brigadier-general. He continued in command of Ticonderoga and its dependencies until the month of May, when, in consequence of his earnest solicitations, he was allowed to join the main army under General Washington, in New Jersey, where he was immediately placed at the head of a brigade, which he made every exertion to bring into the field in the highest state of discipline. After the British retreated from New Jersey, the commander-in-chief complimented him on his bravery and good conduct.

As soon as the object of the next movements of Sir William Howe was developed, General Wayne, in pursuance of the directions of Washington, left his brigade under the next in command, and proceeded to Chester, in Pennsylvania, to arrange the militia who were to rendezvous there. In the battle of Brandywine (September 11, 1777), he commanded a division stationed at Chad's ford, for the purpose of resisting the passage of the column under Knypshausen. He maintained the contest with the utmost gallantry until near sunset, when, at length overpowered by numbers, and perceiving the enemy, who had defeated the right column of the American army, approaching his flank and rear, he was compelled to retreat. A few days afterward (on the 16th), Washington determined to try the fate of another battle; and, both armies being arrayed in Goshen township, Chester county, on the road leading from Philadelphia to Lancaster, the action was commenced with great spirit by Wayne, who led the advance. It was soon arrested, however, by a violent storm, which rendered it impossible to keep the field. On the 20th, Wayne, in pursuance of the orders of the commander-in chief, to move forward upon the enemy, and endeavor to cut off his baggage, took an excellent position with fifteen hundred troops, including militia, a mile south of the Warren tavern, and three miles in rear of the left wing of the British army, whence, after being reinforced, it was his intention to march and attack the enemy's rear when they decamped. He made every arrangement to prevent a surprise, but the British, having received full intelligence of his movements from traitors, and being faithfully piloted by them, contrived to attack him unawares, with superior numbers, and obliged him to retreat after an obstinate resistance: but his troops formed again at a small distance. This affair having caused some to attach blame to him, he demanded and obtained a court-martial, by whom it was unanimously decided that he had done "everything that could be expected from an active, brave and vigilant officer, under the orders which he then had;" and he was therefore acquitted "with the highest honor." At the battle of Germantown, he evinced his wonted valor, leading his division into the thickest of the fight, and, in covering the retreat, he used every exertion which bravery and prudence could dictate. His horse was killed under him within a few yards of the enemy's front, and he received two slight wounds, in the foot and in the hand. During a large portion of the campaign of 1777, owing to a combination of circum-

stances, he performed alone the duty of three general officers. About the middle of February, 1778, when the army was in winter-quarters at Valley Forge, and suffering miserably from the want of provisions, he was detached with a body of troops to New Jersey, in order to secure the cattle on the eastern banks of the Delaware, and to destroy the forage which could not be removed, lest it should fall into the hands of the enemy. This was a most hazardous and arduous enterprise, within the limits of the enemy's lines, and in a district of country subject to his control whenever he chose to exert it: but he cheerfully proceeded to execute the orders of the commander-in-chief, and literally carried on a winter campaign beyond the reach of any aid. After several skirmishes with the enemy, in all of which he was successful, he succeeded in sending to camp several hundred head of fine cattle, many excellent horses, suited for cavalry-service, and also in securing a quantity of forage, and destroying much more, for the whole of which, to the well-affected, he executed certificates in due form. He returned to the army about the middle of March, and, with his officers and soldiers, received the thanks of the commander-in-chief.

In all councils of war, General Wayne was distinguished for supporting the most energetic and decisive measures. In that which was held before the battle of Monmouth, he and General Cadwallader were the only two of the seventeen general officers who were in favor of fighting. This engagement added to his reputation, his ardor and resolution having been so conspicuous that Washington mentioned him with particular distinction in his official report to Congress. In 1779, Washington, having formed a corps of light infantry, composed of a select body of troops, from the different regiments of the army, appointed General Wayne to its command. In July of this year, he was intrusted, by the commander-in-chief, with the execution of a design which he had formed for attacking the strong post of Stony Point, on the Hudson river. For the details of his success in carrying the fort (on the 15th of July) by a night assault, and making the garrison prisoners with bayonets alone, without firing a single gun, we must refer to the history of the times. In the attack he was struck by a musket-ball on the forehead, which grazed the skull nearly two inches in length, just under the hair. He fell, but instantly rose on one knee, exclaiming, "Forward, my brave fellows, forward!" then, in a suppressed voice, said to his aids, "Assist me: if mortally wounded, I will die in the fort." They did so, and the three entered among the foremost troops. The wound fortunately proved slight. The thanks of Congress and a gold medal, emblematic of the action, were presented to Wayne for his "brave, prudent, and soldierly conduct."

At the end of the year 1779, the corps of light infantry was dissolved; and, soon afterward, General Wayne resumed his command in the Pennsylvania line. During the campaign of 1780, he was constantly actively employed; and, in that of 1781, which ended in the capture of Cornwallis* and the British forces at Yorktown, he bore a conspicuous part. He was sent by Washington to take command of the forces in Georgia, where the enemy were making formidable progress. After some sanguinary encounters, he accomplished the es-

* CHARLES, MARQUIS CORNWALLIS, son of the first Earl Cornwallis, was born in 1738, and entered the army, after having received his education at Westminster, and St. John's college, Cambridge. In 1761, he succeeded to the title. During the American war, he acted a conspicuous part. He signalized himself at the battle of Brandywine, and the siege of Charleston, and obtained advantage at Camden and Guilford; but having invaded Virginia, he was surrounded at Yorktown and compelled to capitulate, as stated above. From 1786 to 1792, he was governor-general and commander-in-chief in India; and during that period he vanquished Tippoo Sultan, and obliged him to accept a humiliating peace. For this service he was created a marquis, and appointed master-general of the ordnance. In 1798 he was sent over to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, and remained till 1801; and, by a system of blended firmness and conciliation, he succeeded in restoring peace to that distracted country. The treaty of Amiens, in 1802, was signed by him. In 1804 he was again made governor-general of India, but he died in October of the following year, at Ghazepore, in the province of Benares. Sound practical sense, not splendid talent, was the characteristic of Cornwallis.



Portrait of Lord Cornwallis.

establishment of security and order, and was presented by the legislature of the state with a valuable farm for his services. Peace soon after followed, when he retired to private life. In 1789, he was a member of the Pennsylvania convention, and an advocate of the present constitution of the United States. In 1792, he was appointed by Washington the successor of General St. Clair in the command of the army engaged against the Indians on the western frontier. It was at first supposed that his ardor would render him an unfit opponent of a foe remarkable for caution. He soon, however, proved the incorrectness of this idea. He established admirable discipline among his troops, and, by his wise and prudent measures in preparing for an engagement, and the skill and bravery with which he fought and gained the battle of August 20, 1794, near the river Miami of the lakes, he brought the war to a completely successful termination. In 1795, he concluded a definitive treaty of peace with the Indians.

A life of peril and glory was terminated in December, 1796. He had shielded his country from the murderous tomahawk of the savage. He had established her boundaries; he had forced her enemies to sue for her protection; he beheld her triumphant, rich in arts, and potent in arms. What more could his patriotic spirit wish to see. He died in a hut at Presque Isle, aged about fifty-one years, and was buried on the shore of Lake Erie.

When we reflect upon it, we can not help thinking it a little singular, that a trivial matter in verse should give a man an epithet for life and even for ages: it is a well-known fact, that a line has given, or at least perpetuated, the name of "Mad Anthony," for General Wayne. This name was bestowed on him in a humorous poem entitled "The Cow-Chase," written by the unfortunate Major Andre. It was founded on an attempt of the American army to obtain cattle and forage, principally from the tories, of which Gen. Wayne had the charge, and in which he failed of his usual success.

TOUSSAINT-LOUVERTURE.

AMONG the very few individuals of the African race, who have distinguished themselves by intellectual achievements, TOUSSAINT-LOUVERTURE, stands pre-eminent. His father, an African king, was taken prisoner-of-war by another tribe, and sold into slavery. He became the property of a St. Domingo planter, whose estate lay near the town of Cape Haytien, formerly called Cape François, on the northwest coast of the island. On this estate called Breda, Toussaint was born about the year 1745. His amiable deportment as a slave, the patience, mildness, and benevolence of his disposition, and the purity of his conduct amid the general laxity of morals which prevailed on the island, gained for him many of those advantages which afterward gave him such absolute ascendancy over his insurgent brethren. His good qualities attracted the attention of M. Bayou de Libertas, the agent on the estate, who taught him reading, writing, and arithmetic—elements of knowledge which hardly one in ten thousand of his fellow-slaves possessed. M. Bayou made him his postilion, which gave him advantages much above those of the field-slaves. When the general rising of the blacks took place, in 1791, much solicitation was used to induce Toussaint to join them; but he declined until he had procured an opportunity for the escape of M. Bayou and his family to Baltimore, shipping a considerable quantity of sugar for the supply of their immediate wants. In his subsequent prosperity, he availed himself of every occasion to give them new marks of his gratitude. Having thus provided security for his benefactors, he joined a corps of blacks, under the orders of General Biassou, in the capacity of his lieutenant; but was soon raised to the principal command, Biassou being degraded on account of his cruelty and ferocity. Indeed, Toussaint was every way so much superior to the other negroes, by reason of his general intelligence and education, his prudence, activity, and address, not less than his bravery, that he immediately attained a complete ascendancy over all the black chieftains. Thus it happened that, in June, 1794, when the English under General Whyte, captured Port au Prince from the French commissioners, Santhonax and Poverel, the latter, on retiring into the country, found the whole island in the possession of Rigaud, at the head of the mulattoes, and Toussaint-Louverture, with his negroes. They contended with various success against the English, until 1797, when Toussaint received from the French government a commission of general-in-chief of the armies of St. Domingo, and, as such, signed the convention with General Maitland for the evacuation of the island by the British.

From 1798 until 1801, the island continued peaceable and tranquil under the government of Toussaint. He caused the duties of religion and morality to be strictly enforced, and gave the whole weight of his example and influence in favor of decency and sobriety of life. He frowned upon every indication of licentiousness of manners, and avoided all favorable notice of persons, however otherwise graced, who were not modest, quiet, and diligent in their vocation. His public levées were conducted with the strictest decorum, and the best private societies of Europe were not superior in manners to his evening parties. Everything was magnificent around him, and his retinue was as splendid as that of an oriental monarch; but he was plain in his dress, and all his habits. He wore a turban always on his head, and was thence called by his enemies "the monkey with the linen head-dress." He made a meal of cakes and fruit, with a glass of water. His bodily strength was prodigious, and he maintained it by constant vigorous exercise. It was his custom to make sudden excursions to various parts of the island, always choosing the points where he was least ex-



Toussaint-Louverture, in the Costume of Commander of the Black Army of Hayti.

pected. He sometimes rode one hundred and fifty miles without rest, perpetually outstripping all his attendants, except two trumpeters, who were as well mounted as himself. After such fatigue, he would sleep for two hours, and start up again refreshed for new toils. He was accessible to all who wished to see him; and it is said that no one ever left his presence dissatisfied: if he could not grant the request, he contrived to please the applicant. His generals were as obedient as children before him; his soldiers regarded him as a superior being, and the people at large worshipped him as their deliverer. It is no wonder that the conviction existing in his mind escaped his lips, that he was the Bonaparte of St. Domingo, and that the colony could not exist without him. This was no more than a moderate expression of the truth.

He employed a council of his adherents to prepare a colonial constitution, which might unite the different inhabitants of the island under a uniform and impartial government. By this constitution all executive power was put into his hands, with the office of president for life, with power to choose his successor, and to nominate to all offices. In all that regarded commerce and finance this constitution worked admirably, during the short time it was tried. The commerce of all nations visited the shores of St. Domingo under the American flag: the treasury filled; the estates flourished, and Toussaint was adored.

The efforts of Toussaint would have been attended with much success, but for the ill-judged expedition which Bonaparte sent against the island, under the command of Le Clerc. This expedition, fruitless as it was in respect to its general object, proved fatal to Toussaint, solely in consequence of the sincerity and good faith which marked his character. Toussaint was noted for his private virtues; among the rest, warm affection for his family. Le Clerc brought out from France Toussaint's two sons, with their preceptor, Coisson, whose orders were to carry his pupils to Toussaint, and make use of them to work on the tenderness of the negro-chief, and induce him to abandon his countrymen. If he yielded, he was to be made second in command to Le Clerc; if he refused, his children were to be reserved as hostages of his fidelity to the French. Notwithstanding the greatness of the sacrifice demanded of him, Toussaint remained faithful to his brethren. We pass over the details of the war, which, at length, ended in a treaty of peace, concluded by the black chiefs Toussaint, Dessalines, and Christophe, against their better judgment, but in consequence of the effect of Le Clerc's professions upon their simple followers, who were induced to lay down their arms. Toussaint retired to his plantation, relying upon the solemn assurances of Le Clerc, that his person and property should be held sacred. But, notwithstanding these assurances, he was treacherously seized in the night, hurried on board a ship-of-war, and transported to Brest. He was conducted, first to close prison in Chateaux de Joux, and thence to Besançon, where he was plunged into a cold, wet, subterranean prison, which soon proved fatal to a constitution used only to the warm skies and free air of the West Indies. He languished through the winter 1802-'03; and his death, which happened in April, 1803, raised a cry of indignation against the government which had chosen this dastardly method of destroying one of the best and bravest men of the African race.

JOHN PAUL JONES.

JOHN PAUL JONES was born at Arbingland, in Scotland, July 6, 1747. His father was a gardener, whose name was *Paul*; but the son assumed that of *Jones* in subsequent life, for what reason is not known. Young Paul early evinced a decided predilection for the sea, and at the age of twelve was bound apprentice to a respectable merchant of Whitehaven, in the American trade. His first voyage was to America, where his elder brother was established as a planter. He was then engaged for some time in the slave-trade, but quitted it in disgust, and returned to Scotland, in 1768, as passenger in a vessel, the captain and mate of which died on the passage. Jones assumed the command, at the request of those on board, and brought the vessel safe into port. For this service, he was appointed by the owners master and *supercargo*. While in command of this vessel, he punished a sailor, who afterward died of a fever at the island of Tobago—a circumstance which gave rise to an accusation against Jones, of having caused his death, by the severity of the punishment upon him; but this has been completely refuted. Jones was afterward in command of the *Betsey*, of London, and remained some time in the West Indies, engaged in commercial pursuits, by which it is said he realized a handsome fortune.

In 1773, he was residing in Virginia, arranging the affairs of his brother, who had died intestate and childless, and about this time took the name of *Jones*. In Virginia he continued to live until the commencement of the struggle between the colonies and mother-country. He offered his services to the former, and was appointed first of the first-lieutenants, and designated to the *Alfred*, on board of which ship, to use his own language in one of his letters, "he had the honor to hoist, with his own hands, the flag of freedom, the first time it was displayed on the Delaware." Soon after this, we find him in command of the *Providence*, mounting twelve four-pounders, with a complement of seventy men, cruising from the Bermudas to the gut of Canso, and making sixteen prizes in little more than six weeks.

In May, 1777, Jones was ordered to proceed to France, where the American commissioners, Franklin, Deane, and Lee, were directed to invest him with the command of a fine ship, as a reward of his signal services. On his arrival in France, he was immediately summoned to Paris by the commissioners. The object of this summons was to concert a plan of operations for the force preparing to act against the British in the West Indies and on the coast of America. This plan, which certainly did great honor to the projector, though untoward delays and accidents prevented its immediate success, was afterward openly claimed by Jones as his own, without acknowledging the assistance or participation of the American commissioners or the French ministry. The *Ranger* was then placed under his orders, with discretion to cruise where he pleased with this restriction, however, that he was not to return immediately to France after making attempts upon the coast of England, as the French government had not yet declared itself openly as the ally of the United States. On the 10th of April, 1778, he sailed on a cruise, during which he laid open the weakness of the British coast. With a single ship, he kept the whole coast of Scotland, and part of that of England, for some time in a state of alarm, and made a descent at Whitehaven, where he surprised and took two forts, with thirty pieces of cannon, and set fire to the shipping. In this attack upon Whitehaven, the house of the earl of Selkirk, in whose service the father of Jones had been gardener, was plundered, and the family plate carried off. But the act was committed without his knowledge, and he afterward made the best atonement in his power.



Portrait of John Paul Jones.

After his return to Brest with two hundred prisoners-of-war, Jones became involved in a variety of troubles, for want of means to support them, pay his crew, and refit his ship. After many delays and vexations, he sailed from the road of St. Croix, August 14, 1779, with a squadron of seven sail, designing to annoy the coasts of England and Scotland. The principal occurrence of this cruise was the capture of the British ship-of-war *Serapis*, after a bloody and desperate engagement, off Flamborough head, September 23, 1779. The *Serapis* had a picked crew, and was a frigate much superior in force to Jones's vessel, the *Bon Homme Richard*, which sunk not long after the termination of the



Capture of the *Serapis*.

engagement. During the action, which lasted several hours, the greater part of his crew were either killed or wounded, and his ship twice on fire. In addition to this, the other vessels of his squadron could give him little or no aid; and one of them, the *Alliance*, by some unaccountable conduct of her commander, who was inimical to Jones, fired several shots into the *Bon Homme Richard*! Still the indomitable spirit of the hero would not yield even in this trying hour; and when a subordinate officer, without orders, was in the act of striking the American flag, Jones shot him dead with a pistol, and as he fell upon the deck, the descending colors completely shrouded the prostrate form of the traitor. The flag was speedily replaced, and Jones renewed the combat with such desperation, that in a short time there was scarcely a man left upon the decks of the *Serapis* capable of hauling down her ensign, which was found nailed to the mast.

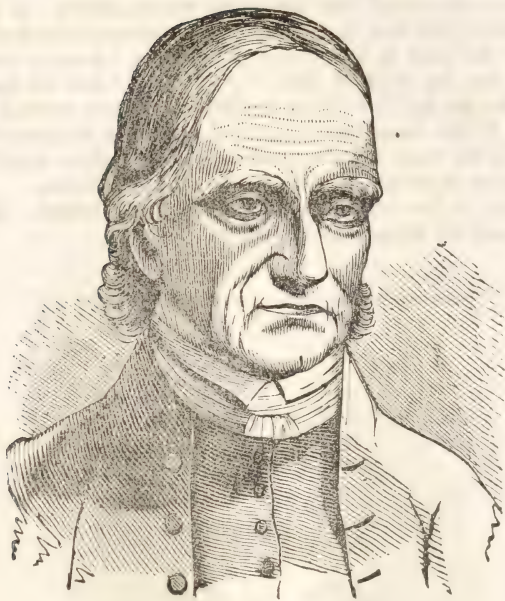
The sensation produced by this battle was unexampled, and raised the fame of Jones to its acme. In a letter to him, Franklin says: "For some days after the arrival of your express, scarce anything was talked of at Paris and Versailles but your cool conduct and persevering bravery during that terrible conflict. You may believe that the impression on my mind was not less strong than on that of the others. But I do not choose to say, in a letter to yourself, all I think on such an occasion." His reception at Paris, whither he went on the invitation of Franklin, was of the most flattering kind. He was everywhere

caressed. The king presented him with a gold sword, bearing the inscription, "*Vindictæ maris Ludovicus XVI. remuneratur strenuo vindici*;" and requested permission of Congress to invest him with the military order of merit—an honor never conferred on any one before who had not borne arms under the commission of France.

In 1781, Jones sailed for the United States, and arrived in Philadelphia on the 18th of February that year, after a variety of escapes and rencontres, where he underwent a sort of examination before the board of admiralty, which resulted greatly to his honor. The board gave it as their opinion, that "the conduct of Paul Jones merits particular attention, and some distinguished mark of approbation from Congress." That body passed a resolution highly complimentary to his "zeal, prudence, and intrepidity." General Washington wrote him a letter of congratulation, and he was afterward voted a gold medal by Congress. From Philadelphia he went to Portsmouth, New Hampshire, to superintend the building of a ship-of-war, and, while there, drew up some admirable observations on the subject of the American navy. By permission of Congress, he subsequently went on board the French fleet, where he remained until the conclusion of peace, which put a period to his naval career in the service of the United States.

Jones then went to Paris, as agent for prize-money; and, while there, joined in a plan to establish a fur-trade between the northwest coast of America and China, in conjunction with a kindred spirit, the celebrated John Ledyard. In Paris, he continued to be treated with the greatest distinction. He afterward was invited into the Russian service, with the rank of rear-admiral, where he was disappointed in not receiving the command of the fleet acting against the Turks in the Black sea. He found fault with the conduct of the prince of Nassau, the admiral; became restless and impatient; was intrigued against at court, and calumniated by his enemies; and had permission from the empress Catharine to retire from the service with a pension, which was never paid. He returned to Paris, where he gradually sunk into poverty, neglect, and ill health, until his death, which was occasioned by jaundice and dropsy, July 18, 1792, in the forty-sixth year of his age. His last public act was heading a deputation of Americans, who appeared before the national assembly to offer their congratulations on the glorious and salutary reform of their government. This was before the flight of the king.

Jones was a man of signal talent and courage; he conducted all his operations with the most daring boldness, combined with the keenest sagacity in calculating the chances of success and the consequences of defeat. He was, however, of an irritable and impetuous disposition, which rendered him impatient of the authority of his superiors, while he was, at the same time, harsh in the exercise of his own; and he was deficient in that modesty which adorns great qualities and distinguished actions, while it disarms envy and conciliates jealousy. His early education was of a very limited kind. It terminated when he went to sea, at the age of twelve; but he supplied its defects by subsequent study, so as to enable himself to write with fluency, strength, and clearness, and to sustain his part respectably in the polished society into which he was thrown. In his letters, he inculcates the necessity of knowledge for naval officers, and intimates that he had devoted "midnight studies" to the attainment of that information which he deemed requisite in his situation. His memorials, correspondence, &c., are quite voluminous. He also wrote poetry, and in Paris was a great pretender to *ton*, as a man of fashion, especially after his victory over the Serapis, which, of course, gave him great *éclat* among the ladies of the French capital. At this period, he is described by an English lady, then resident at Paris, as "a smart little man of thirty-six; speaks but little French, and appears to be an extraordinary genius, a poet as well as a hero."



ELIAS HICKS.

ELIAS HICKS was born in Hempstead, Long Island, March 19th, 1748. We know but little of his youth and education, which were probably not of more than common interest. He was married in January, 1771, and was acknowledged a member of the society of Friends about the same period. He first appeared as a minister at the age of twenty-seven. In this capacity, he is said to have been very diligent and successful. In the course of fifty years he travelled extensively through the United States, as a minister, and several times into Canada. In the year 1828, being then eighty years old, he made a visit to New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, and Indiana, much to the satisfaction and surprise of friends in those parts. Shortly after his return home, his wife died. The summer following, he visited the northern and western parts of the state of New York. He attended the monthly and quarterly meetings in New York frequently after this, and we are told that even at this advanced age, he preached with great clearness and power. On the 14th of February, 1830, just after writing a very long and spirited letter to a western friend, he was taken with a paralysis of the right side, which terminated his life on the 27th of that month.

Elias Hicks was no ordinary man, if we rightly apprehend his character. A fluent speech, a ready pen, a persuasive and impressive manner, and an interesting physiognomy, united in a person endowed with a strong mind, can not, as in him, be actively exercised in any community without producing an important sensation.

He was tidy and careful about his farm—a very early riser, and always industrious. A friend informs us, that he saw him in his eightieth year, coming out of the field on a load of hay at five o'clock in the morning. He possessed this same activity and vigor of mind and body until the time of his last illness.

An incident occurred in the latter part of his life, which furnishes, perhaps, a strong evidence of his prevailing conscientiousness and integrity. An acquaintance of his, who owed him borrowed money, failed. A son-in-law informed Mr. Hicks of the fact, at the same time showing him that he had been made secure. "But how is this?" said Mr. Hicks, "does he not owe thee?" "Yes."—"And has he secured thee?"—"Yes."—"And all his creditors?" "No, he could not do that."—"Then he should not have secured thee or me." Whereupon Mr. Hicks immediately directed his debtor to place him upon the same footing with the rest; it not appearing strictly right to him that a distinction should be made between *confidential* and other creditors.

Mr. Hicks died at his residence in Jericho, Long Island. His most important writings are his letters and his journal.



LORENZO DA PONTE.

LORENZO DA PONTE, an eminent Italian scholar, and melodramatic poet, and whose name is associated with that of Mozart, as furnishing the librettoes to some of his most celebrated operas, was born on the 10th of March, 1749, at Ceneda, a small town in the Venetian states, endowed with a bishopric and seminary. His father was a poor leather-dealer, under the Mosaic law, in the precepts of which, from his early knowledge of Hebrew, we are induced to believe Lorenzo was brought up until his fourteenth year. At this age, anxious to become instructed, and feeling the humiliation of a social position on which an unenlightened public opinion leaned with prejudice, he sought in Christianity a relief. His origin had hitherto closed to him the doors of the common schools, and he now found in the seminary the elementary education he stood

in need of, and in the bishop, Lorenzo da Ponte, whose name he assumed, a protector. In those days the conversion of an Israelite was a source of high gratification in the papal church, which extended its support to the family of the person converted. Accordingly, the brother of Lorenzo was also placed by the bishop in the seminary of Ceneda, where the latter soon made notable progress in humanitarian studies, that is, in the Latin tongue and classics.

Six years after he proceeded, at the death of his patron, to the seminary of Porto Guaro, where certain notions of philosophy and of physical mathematical science were hinted at, not taught. There were no schools, at that time, in Italy, where liberal sciences were properly professed; and the year passed by him as a disciple in this new institution, was devoted by young Da Ponte to the prosecution of his Latin studies, and to the secret perusal of the Italian classics, which he occasionally essayed to imitate. During the ensuing two years he discharged the functions of professor of Rhetoric, and thus sealed his devotion to *belles-lettres*. There is also reason to believe that in order to benefit his family he took orders and celebrated mass.

His next peregrination was to Venice, that fairy town of which the true features in those days of gayety and voluptuous extravagance, have not yet found their Juvenal. Here he had two opportunities of establishing himself in life, which he declined; and in his own words we find a confirmation of our view that he had entered his novitiate. Aspiring to the election for *avogador* (an important office in the Venetian state), he found an opponent in Pisani, against whom he wrote a satirical sonnet, in consequence of which he was exiled from Venice. This production, composed in the Venetian dialect, appears in his memoirs, and still preserves a certain warm and popular eloquence.

On leaving Venice he hastened to Gorizia, a small town of the Friul, on the Italian frontier. An enemy, to be rid of his presence there, forged a letter in which Da Ponte was invited to accept an honorable post at the court of Dresden. He was soon on his way to the lovely capital of Saxony, on reaching which he discovered the fraud imposed upon him. Having no other occupation there, he translated five psalms of David, by which he acquired acquaintances and protection. Thence he voyaged to Vienna, supplied with a letter of recommendation to Salieri, the celebrated composer, an opportunity of laboring in whose behalf soon presented itself. To the emperor Joseph II. was the new poet presented by Salieri, and the result of this interview was, that Da Ponte—who had not yet written for the theatre—should make his *débüt* in an opera adapted to music by the *maestro*. Although *Il Ricco d'un Giorno* (his first attempt), proved unsuccessful, its failure stimulated him to renewed efforts. He speedily produced the *Cosa Rara* for Martini: and his *Nozze di Figaro* and *Don Giovanni*, composed for the music of Mozart, established his high reputation as a melodramatic poet.

Joseph II., who passionately loved the opera, and sympathized not with Casti, protected the young Venetian bard. The latter became his Latin secretary when need was to indite an epistle to some court at which the French language had not yet been adopted as the diplomatic medium. In the course of a theatrical life, it is impossible for a playwright or composer to avoid wounding the feelings of some one or other of the sensitive followers of Thespis. Da Ponte was not destined to escape this fate; and sundry enemies, headed by a *prima donna* he had offended, contrived, on the decease of the emperor, to have the poet exiled from Vienna. Relying upon the promptings of a spirit which had never failed him, and confident the Austrian capital was a fitting scene for the exercise of his resources, he had recourse to Leopold; but, unable to compel the emperor to do him justice, he renounced the stole, espoused an Englishwoman, and proceeded with his wife to Paris and London.

The Italian theatre of the great metropolis having been recently consumed

by fire, a person named Taylor conceived the project of reconstructing it by subscription, and of accumulating, in shares, a fund sufficient to engage a first-rate company. To this theatre and its originator Da Ponte now became poet and secretary. The bankruptcy of our bard's associate involved his fortunes, and he left London for America, unable to avert the ruin of Taylor.

Fifteen thousand dollars, saved from the wreck by the prudence and economy of his wife and sister-in-law, constituted the fortune of this party. Upon the failure of several commercial speculations, and after residing in Elizabethtown, in Sunbury, and, we believe, in Philadelphia, the poet embraced a vocation worthy his tastes and acquirements, the diffusion of the Italian language among the educated portion of the thriving community of New York.

In 1811, at an age when the activities of most men cease, a new era commenced in the life of Da Ponte. Becoming naturalized here, he directed henceforth his whole energies to the propagation of his native language and literature among his new and intelligent countrymen. That these efforts, extended through a second life of thirty years, were crowned with success, our present cultivation of the Italian music and rich collections of her noblest works are the amplest testimony. The laurel and the oak of Petrarch and of Dante interweave their branches with the bright foliage of the American grove; and more than two thousand pupils, listening beneath its shade to the sonnet and the epic from the trembling lips of the ancient bard, have echoed throughout the new world their imperishable glory. That this enthusiasm, which subsequently gained for him the professorship of his native tongue in Columbia college, communicated to others its electric influence, we will cite an instance Signor Da Ponte was fond of relating. It was of one of his pupils, a lovely young girl, upon whose cheek the death-germe of consumption had upshot its early prophetic bloom. In her fading state, she received, one day, the visit of her old master; and, aware how he treasured up every word spoken in praise of his native language, she playfully said, "Signor Da Ponte, I am so glad to have learned Italian: for sure am I it must be the language of the happy country into which I trust soon to pass away."

It was a day of joy for the old patriarch when came among us Garcia, with his lovely daughter, the gifted Malibran,* then in the morning of her glory. *Don Giovanni* triumphed as erst at Vienna, and the double-lived old man thus shared in this and other successes of the Italian stage, which he had little dreamed of on this side the Atlantic. "The Barber," "Tancredi," "Otello," and other musical creations, rendered the winter of 1825-'6 an epoch in New York, by first inspiring a taste for the works of the model-masters in music.

It was again the untiring zeal of Da Ponte which in 1832, invited hither the company of Montressor. In short, whenever the words music and Italian were coupled together, the old bard became rejuvenesced, enthusiasm lit up his eye, and love of the literature and song of his native land thus remained until death a worship and a ruling passion. The closing thirty years of an existence, so rife with incident and adventure, terminated in the city of New York, on the 17th of August, 1838, in the ninetieth year of his age, just three months after the decease of Prince Talleyrand, whom he preceded five years upon the stage of life.

* MALIBRAN DE BERIOT, the daughter of Manuel Garcia, as mentioned above, was born in Paris, in 1808. She was taken to London by her parents at the early age of eight years, and made music her unceasing study. Being sustained by a temperament of singular energy and vivacity, she was enabled to make her debut as prima-donna in opera when but sixteen years of age. During the following year she accompanied her father to this country, where her union with M. Malibran, an elderly French gentleman, took place. The marriage proving an unhappy one they separated, and Madame Malibran returned to Europe. She subsequently obtained a divorce, and in 1831, married M. de Beriot, an eminent Belgian violinist. Her distinguished professional career through the principal cities of Europe was brought suddenly to a close, by her death, from over-exertion, at Manchester, England, September 23, 1836, in the twenty-eighth year of her age.



JOHN ANDRE.

JOHN ANDRE, aid-de-camp to Sir Henry Clinton, and adjutant-general of the British army in the revolutionary war, was born in England, in 1749. His father was a native of Geneva, and a considerable merchant in the Levant trade; he died in 1769. Young Andre was destined to mercantile business, and attended his father's counting-house, after having spent some years for his education at Geneva. He first entered the army in January, 1771. At this time he had a strong attachment to Honoria Sneyd, who afterward married Mr. Edgeworth. In 1772, he visited the courts of Germany, and returned to England in 1773. He landed at Philadelphia in September, 1774, as lieutenant of the royal English fusileers; and soon proceeded by way of Boston to Canada to join his regiment. In 1775, he was taken prisoner by Montgomery, at St. John's; but was afterward exchanged, and appointed captain. In the summer of 1777, he was appointed aid to General Grey, and was present at the engagements in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, in 1777 and 1778. On the return of General Grey, he was appointed aid to General Clinton. In 1780, he was promoted to the rank of major, and made adjutant-general of the British army.

After Arnold had intimated to the British, in 1780, his intention of delivering up West Point to them, Major Andre was selected as the person, to whom the maturing of Arnold's treason, and the arrangements for its execution should be committed. A correspondence was for some time carried on between them under a mercantile disguise and the feigned names of Gustavus and Anderson; and at length, to facilitate their communications, the Vulture sloop-of-war moved up the North river, and took a station convenient for the purpose, but not so near as to excite suspicion. An interview was agreed upon, and in the night of September 21, 1780, he was taken in a boat, which was despatched for the purpose, and carried to the beach, without the posts of both armies, under a pass for John Anderson. He met General Arnold at the house of a Mr. Smith. While the conference was yet unfinished daylight approached; and to avoid the danger of discovery, it was proposed that he should remain concealed until the succeeding night. He is understood to have refused to be carried within the American posts, but the promise made him by Arnold to respect this objec



Portrait of Benedict Arnold.*

tion was not observed. He was carried within them contrary to his wishes and without his knowledge. He continued with Arnold the succeeding day, and when on the following night, he proposed to return to the Vulture, the boatman refused to carry him, because she had during the day shifted her station, in consequence of a gun having been moved to the shore and brought to bear upon her. This embarrassing circumstance reduced him to the necessity of endeavoring to reach New York by land. Yielding with reluctance to the urgent representations of Arnold, he laid aside his regimentals, which he had hitherto worn under a surtout, and put on a suit of plain clothes; and receiving a pass from the American general, authorizing him, under the feigned name of John Anderson, to proceed on the public service to the White Plains, or lower if he thought proper, he set out on his return in the evening of the 22d, accompanied by Joshua Smith, and passed the night at Crompond. The next morning he crossed the Hudson to King's ferry on the east side. A little beyond the Croton, Smith deeming him safe, bade him adieu. He had passed all the guards and posts on the road without suspicion, and was proceeding to New York in perfect security, when, September 23d, one of the three military men, who were employed with others in scouting-parties between the lines of the two armies, springing suddenly from his covert into the road, seized the reins of his bridle, and stopped his horse. Instead of producing his pass, Andre with a want of self-possession, which can be attributed only to a kind Providence, asked the man hastily where he belonged, and being answered, "To below," replied immediately, "And so do I." He then declared himself to be a British officer on urgent business, and begged that he might not be detained. The other two militia-men coming up at this moment, he discovered his mistake; but it was too late to repair it. He offered them his purse and a valuable watch, to which he added the most tempting promises of ample reward and permanent provision from the government, if they would permit him to escape; but his offers were rejected without hesitation.

The militia-men, whose names were John Paulding, David Williams, and

* BENEDICT ARNOLD, during the early part of his career as an officer of the revolutionary army, devoted his best energies to promote the cause he had espoused. He was bred a surgeon; but at the commencement of hostilities between Great Britain and the colonies, he entered into the service of the latter, and was chosen captain of a company of volunteers at New Haven. He soon rose to the rank of colonel, and commanded an expedition to Canada. He afterward distinguished himself by his bravery, when commanding a flotilla on Lake Champlain, and on other occasions, and was promoted to the rank of general. After treacherously betraying the trust reposed in him by Washington, as above related, he fled to the British camp, where he was employed by General Clinton against his former comrades. At the conclusion of the war he returned to England, and died in 1801.

Isaac Van Wart, proceeded to search him. They found concealed in his boots exact returns, in Arnold's handwriting, of the state of the forces, ordnance, and defences at West Point and its dependencies; critical remarks on the works, and an estimate of the men ordinarily employed in them, with other interesting papers. Andre was carried before Lieutenant-Colonel Jameson, the officer commanding the scouting-parties on the lines, and regardless of himself, and only anxious for the safety of Arnold, he still maintained the character which he had assumed, and requested Jameson to inform his commanding officer, that Anderson was taken. A letter was accordingly sent to Arnold, and the traitor, thus becoming acquainted with his danger, escaped.

A board of general officers, of which Major-General Greene was president, and the two foreign generals, Lafayette and Steuben, were members, was called to report a precise state of the case of Andre, who had acknowledged himself adjutant-general of the British army, and to determine in what character he was to be considered, and to what punishment he was liable. He received from the board every mark of indulgent attention; and from a sense of justice, as well as of delicacy, he was informed on the first opening of the examination, that he was at perfect liberty not to answer any interrogatory which might embarrass his own feelings. But he disdained every evasion, and frankly acknowledged everything which was material to his condemnation. The court deliberated long: and at last came to the decision, *that Major Andre was a spy, and ought to suffer death*. He was calm as a philosopher, when the award of the court was read.

The morning of the 2d of October, 1780, dawned upon the army. This time was fixed for the execution of the prisoner. It was some distance from the prison to the place of execution, and this the prisoner desired to walk. There had been some fog during the night, which was now settling about the surrounding mountains. Some of the leaves had begun to wear an autumnal appearance. The army was drawn out to witness the sad spectacle. He passed through files of soldiers, on whose pale faces sat the utmost melancholy, bowing to every one he knew.

As the prisoner came in sight of the gallows, he turned to the officers who were with him, and said, "Could not this have been otherwise?" He was answered, "No." "Well then," said he, "it is only one pang. I am reconciled to my death, but not to the manner of it. Soldiers, bear witness that I die like a brave man." His manly air—his cheek, fresh from morning exercise—his nerves, firm as ever were in a human frame—his softened tone of voice—his sweet smile—were all witnessed by the spectators; and as he was launched into eternity, a groan involuntarily burst from the bottom of every bosom.

The greatest exertions were made by Sir Henry Clinton, to whom Andre was particularly dear, to rescue him from his fate. It was first represented, that he came on shore under the sanction of a flag; but Washington returned an answer to Clinton, in which he stated, that Andre had himself disclaimed the pretext. An interview was next proposed between Lieutenant-General Robertson, and General Greene; but no facts, which had not before been considered, were made known. When every other exertion failed, a letter from Arnold, filled with threats, was presented.

The sympathy excited among the American officers by his fate, was as universal as it is unusual on such occasions; and proclaims the merit of him who suffered, and the humanity of those who inflicted the punishment. In 1821, the bones of Andre were dug up, and carried to his native land, by royal mandate.

EDWARD JENNER.

EDWARD JENNER, the first who applied vaccine matter to counteract the fatal ravages of the small-pox, was born May 17, 1749, in the vicarage house at Berkeley, in Gloucestershire, England. His father was of an old and much respected family, and besides being vicar, was in the enjoyment of an independent fortune. He died at an early age, and the education of Edward, who was the third son, was continued by his elder brother, who succeeded his father in the living.

A love of natural history appears to have been the earliest indication of character which marked Jenner's youth. At the usual period, he was apprenticed to Mr. Ludlow, a surgeon at Sodbury, near Bristol. One day, a young country woman, employed in a dairy as a milker, incidentally remarked in her master's surgery, that she had no fear of the small-pox, as she had taken the cow-pox. This incident was one of the proximate causes of Jenner devoting himself to the study of the nature of the latter disease. When nearly twenty-one, he came to London, and during two years resided with John Hunter, on terms, exceedingly gratifying to a young pupil. Their friendship continued through life.

During his residence in London, Jenner arranged the specimens of natural history which Sir Joseph Banks had collected during Cook's first voyage. The manner in which he executed his task was so satisfactory, that a situation as naturalist was offered him in Cook's second expedition. Such an offer to a youth of two-and-twenty, is a proof how successfully his zeal for natural history had stimulated his talents. Singular enough, this tempting opportunity of enjoying an almost unlimited gratification of his taste was not embraced. A few years afterward he declined the offer of a lucrative appointment in India; and in 1775, a proposal of his friend, John Hunter, to establish a school of natural history including medicine, in London. He preferred the seclusion of a country practice, and the pleasures of a country life, to struggling for distinction in a more active sphere. It is also probable that the subject of vaccination employed his thoughts, and that an indistinct notion of his future discovery determined him upon selecting and remaining in a position which would enable him to work out his ideas. He soon acquired a valuable and extensive surgical practice at Berkeley; and in 1792 he found himself under the necessity of limiting his exertions, and having purchased (as was then customary) a doctor's degree of the university of St. Andrews, he practised in future only as a physician.

During the leisure which an active professional career permitted, he enjoyed the society of friends, music, the literature of the day; and natural history and geology (the latter then a new study) varied and lightened his daily duties. A paper, in which he gave an account of the habits of the cuckoo, from many years' observation, procured him the honor of being elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. But little was previously known of the habits of this singular bird. Dr. Jenner also frequently contributed valuable original papers to two medical societies to which he belonged. He is said to have enlarged so frequently upon the cow-pox that at one of these societies his medical brethren protected themselves by jocosely putting an interdiction on the subject, treating it as a forbidden topic, as they would have done a dogma in politics or theology. These details of Jenner's life bring us to the question in connection with which his value to the world at large is now so well appreciated.

The small-pox is propagated by infection. In the year 1717, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, who was then at Constantinople, where her husband was



Portrait of Edward Jenner.

embassador, had her son inoculated with the virus of the small-pox. The practice had long been known in Turkey, and it was found that the disease produced artificially was less violent than the casual disorder. In 1721 inoculation was tried in England on seven criminals, and a few years afterward, the children of the royal family were innoculated. Inoculation, however, never became anything like universal, because, though in many cases the disease appeared in a milder form, yet its fatality was not abated to so great an extent as had been hoped, and the rate of mortality, before inoculation was known, and after it was practised, did not differ so materially as to offer a sufficient inducement voluntarily to encounter the disease. The circumstance which led Jenner to direct his attention to the cow-pox has already been noticed. This disease makes its appearance on the animal's udder, from which the milkers take the infection. Similar vesicles are raised on parts of the body, slight fever ensues; but after a few days these symptoms disappear, and at this inconsiderable disarrangement of the general health the small-pox is rendered innocuous. Such was the preservative to which the countrywoman alluded in the surgery of Jenner's master, at Sudbury. This protective power was not unknown to medical men, yet to introduce the virus of a diseased animal, by artificial means, into the human system, was an innovation which had not entered into their heads, and Jenner's proposal consequently often excited not a little ridicule and prejudice. To form some idea of the reception which such a project would be likely to meet, we may just imagine the repugnance that would be felt if a proposal were now made to innoculate the human subject from the virus of a pig in the measles, or to obtain immunity against some other disorder by the absorption of the eruptive matter which characterizes the *greuse* in horses. And yet, in Jenner's time, the latter disease was regarded as similar in character to the eruptive disorder in the cow. No man but Jenner ever thought of applying the vaccine lymph to a sore produced for the purpose on the human body, in order that it might enter the system; and yet his medical friends were made acquainted with each step in the progress of his inquiry, and his friend Hunter, so early as 1770, was accustomed to allude to his views in his lecture-room in London. It was not, however, until above a quarter of a century had elapsed, during which he had given the subject his best attention, that the direct application of vaccine matter in the manner which is now common, was made for the first time by Jenner himself.

On the 14th of May, 1796, he inoculated a boy in the arm from a pustule on the hand of a young woman, who had received the infection from one of her master's cows. The disease made its appearance, and the symptoms were as mild and favorable as could have been desired. On the 1st of July, the boy was innoculated for the small-pox; but the virus, which had so often been mortal in its effects, was deprived of its power. This was the first of Jenner's triumphant cases. His feelings during the period in which the experiment was proceeding, do credit to his sensibility. He says himself: "While the vaccine discovery was progressing, the joy I felt at the discovery before me, of being the instrument destined to take away from the world one of its greatest calamities, blended with the fond hope of enjoying independence and domestic peace and happiness, was often so excessive that in pursuing my favorite subject among the meadows, I have sometimes found myself in a reverie. It is pleasant to me to recollect that these reflections always ended in devout acknowledgments to that Being from whom this and all other mercies flow."

With a rare prudence and caution in a mind of rather sanguine turn, Dr. Jenner waited for two years in order that he might strengthen his discovery, and it was not until June, 1798, that in a memoir written with great modesty and good taste, he published a detail of twenty-three cases of the casual and innoculated disease, in the latter being included one of his own sons,

The progress of vaccination was as rapid as such innovations usually are. In the summer of 1799, a declaration was signed by seventy-three of the most eminent members of the medical profession in London, in testimony of its safety and efficacy. In 1802 a committee investigated the merits of vaccination, and Dr. Jenner's claims to the discovery, and on its recommendation, parliament voted him a grant of ten thousand pounds sterling; and, in 1807, he received an additional grant of twenty thousand pounds sterling. In 1803 a society was established in London for the purpose of vaccination, called the Royal Jennerian Society; which, by Jenner's advice, was merged in 1808 in the National Vaccine Institution. Dr. Jenner continued to make Berkeley his permanent residence; and here he lived honored and respected by every civilized people throughout the earth until his death in 1823.

JOHN WOLFGANG VON GOETHE.

JOHN WOLFGANG VON GOETHE was born August 28, 1749, at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, where his father, a doctor of law and imperial counsellor, was highly respected. Goethe, the greatest modern poet of Germany, has described his own life, in which, with a master-hand, he unfolds the secret springs of the human character, and gives us the key to the most important periods of his life, and, consequently, to the productions by which they were respectively distinguished. Goethe's father was an admirer of the fine arts, and surrounded by pictures, which early developed in the son, the nice discrimination and the active observation for which he was remarkable. The seven years' war broke out when Goethe was eight years old, and count de Thorane, *lieutenant du roi* of the French army in Germany, was quartered in the house of his father. The count, who was a man of taste, soon gave employment to the artists of Frankfort. Young Goethe was often present at the conversations of the count with the artists, respecting the plans of pictures, the way of executing them, &c., These conversations had a great influence upon the mind of the young poet. The count was fond of him, and allowed him to take part freely in the conversations; and some pictures relating to the story of Joseph were actually painted from his suggestions. At the same time he learned the French language practically, and a French company, then performing in Frankfort, awakened his taste for dramatic performances. Drawing, music, natural science, the elements of jurisprudence, and the languages, occupied him alternately. To assist his progress in the languages, he formed the plan of a novel, in which seven brothers and sisters correspond with each other in different languages. The youngest of these fictitious persons used Jewish-German, which led Goethe to study a little Hebrew, in which he never, indeed, became a great adept, but which, nevertheless, had an influence on him in his childhood, and may have had a tendency to encourage his inclination to oriental poetry in his later years. By his study of Hebrew, Goethe became more intimately acquainted with the Old Testament, and the history of Joseph was his first poetical work.

His love for spectacles attracted his attention to a puppet-show, and in the beginning of his *Wilhelm Meister* he undoubtedly took from his own life the motives of Meister's love for puppet-shows, which he dwells upon in a way not very palatable to the taste of foreigners. Goethe very early fell in love, and, as often happens in the case of boys of an ardent temperament, with a girl much older than himself, who, of course, treated him like a child. Her name was Margaret, the name which Goethe afterward gave to the mistress of Faust.



Portrait of John Wolfgang Von Goethe.

Though he was then a mere boy, his passion was so violent as to deprive him of sleep and appetite, so that he fell seriously sick. With returning health, he acquired a firmer character, and applied himself with more zeal to his preparation for the university. He went to Leipsic, where Gottsched still lived; but Ernest and Gellert chiefly attracted his attention. The young poet did not follow any regular course of studies. His mind was always active, but the subjects of his study were regulated by his feelings. German poetry was then in a critical state. It was generally felt, that the old bombastic manner must be shaken off, before poetry could make any important progress. Precision and conciseness were then the great *desiderata*, and Goethe soon learned to feel their importance. The English poets were now imitated, instead of the French, who had previously been servilely copied. He began at this period, what he practised throughout his life, to embody in a poem, or in a poetical form, whatever delighted or grieved, pleased or displeased him, in a word, whatever occupied his mind intensely; and no one, perhaps, was ever more in need of such an exercise, as his nature continually hurried him from one extreme to another. Several dramatic pieces were projected by him at this period, when he first realized the immense difference between the form and the substance of religion, law, morals, in short, of all the great subjects which most deeply affect the well-being of man. The fine arts were not neglected, and he zealously studied the first authors on this subject. He always had a taste for drawing, and, while at Leipsic, also attempted engraving. Improper diet, and other causes, now brought on a disease, from which he had hardly recovered, when he left Leipsic, in 1766. His health was much impaired, and, on his return home, he was affectionately nursed by a lady named Von Klettenberg, and his conversations and correspondence with her were the origin of *Bekenntnisse einer schönen Seele* in his *Meister*. At the same time, this connection led him to the study of mystico-alchemical books (the traces of which are so apparent in *Faust*), and also to chemistry. He was also led, by the reading of several religious works, to construct for himself a strange theological system, of which New-Platonism was the groundwork.

He subsequently went to the university of Strasburg, to pursue the study of law, according to the wish of his father, but gave, in fact, more attention to the study of chemistry and anatomy than to that of law. At Strasburg, he became acquainted with Herder—a decisive circumstance in his life. Herder made him more acquainted with the Italian school of the fine arts, and inspired his mind with views of poetry more congenial to his character than any which he had hitherto conceived. While here, in the immediate presence of the renowned minister of Strasburg, Goethe wrote a short treatise on Gothic architecture. The treatise contains some views which he afterward abandoned. Here, on French ground, and so near the confines of the French language, he shook off all his predisposition for the French character. In 1771, he took the degree of doctor of jurisprudence, and wrote a dissertation on a legal subject. He then went to Wetzlar, where he found, in his own love for a betrothed lady, and in the fate of a young man named Jerusalem, the subjects for his *Werther*.

The attention of the public was first attracted to him by his *Götz* (published in 1773). *Werther* appeared in 1774. November 7, 1775, he went to Weimar, on the invitation of the duke of Saxe-Weimar, who had just begun his reign. In 1776, he was made privy-counsellor of legation, with a seat and vote in the privy-council. He made a journey to Switzerland in the same year, with the prince. In 1782, he was made president of the chamber, and ennobled. In 1786, he made a journey to Italy, where he remained two years, visited Sicily, and remained a long time in Rome. In 1792, he followed his prince during the campaign in Champagne. He was afterward created minis-

ter; received, in 1807, the order of Alexander-Newsky from Alexander of Russia, and the grand cross of the legion of honor from Napoleon. He died at Weimar, on the 22d of March, 1732, at the ripe age of eighty-three.

Goethe was an intellectual giant; and his profound knowledge of life and individual character, place his works among the first ever produced. Their number is large, and so versatile were his talents that almost every subject connected with science, art, and literature, in turn, employed his pen. His satirical productions display much wit, but his force was the metaphysical. Beauty of language, elegance, and correctness, are the chief characteristics of his style. His three novels, *Sorrows of Werther*, *Wilhelm Meister*, and *Elective Affinities*, are regarded in Germany as models of classic composition.

On art and literature his writings are numerous; the principal are, *The Propelia* (a periodical work): *Wincklemann and his Age*; and *Translation and Observations of Memoirs of Benvenuto Cellini*. All of these contain solid and extensive information, brilliancy, and elegance of style.



HENRY KNOX.

HENRY KNOX, major-general of the United States army in the revolutionary war, was born in Boston, July 25, 1750. He received a common school education in his native place. Early in life, he began business as a bookseller, which, however, he relinquished for the purpose of devoting himself to the cause of the Revolution.

Before hostilities between this country and Great Britain in the revolutionary war commenced, he discovered an uncommon zeal in the cause of liberty. Being placed at the head of an independent company in Boston, he exhibited in this station a skill in discipline which presaged his future eminence. It was at the unanimous request of all the officers of artillery, that he was intrusted with the command in that department. When the corps of artillery in 1776 was increased to three regiments, the command was given to Knox, who was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general. He was actively engaged during

the whole contest. After the capture of Cornwallis, in 1781, he received the commission of major-general, having distinguished himself in the siege, at the head of the artillery. Previously to the adoption of the present constitution, he succeeded General Lincoln as secretary of war in March, 1785; and after our present government was organized in 1789, Washington nominated him for the same office. He continued to fill this department till the close of the year 1794, when he resigned it. In his letter to the president, he says: "After having served my country nearly twenty years, the greater portion of the time under your immediate auspices, it is with extreme reluctance I find myself constrained to withdraw from so honorable a situation. But the natural and powerful claims of a numerous family will no longer permit me to neglect their essential interests. In whatever situation I shall be, I shall recollect your confidence and kindness with all the fervor and purity of affection, of which a grateful heart is susceptible." Washington in reply assured him of his sincere friendship, and declared him to have "deserved well of his country."

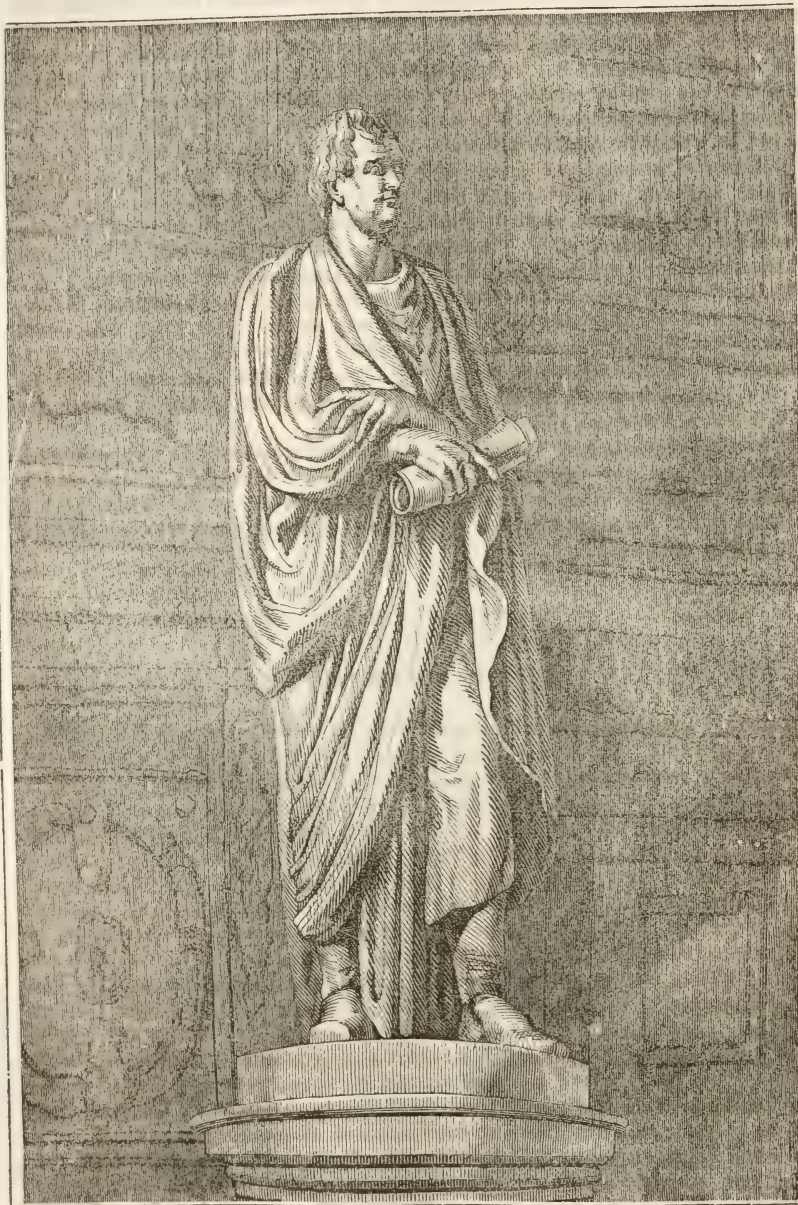
During the last years of his life, General Knox lived at Thomaston, Maine, where he died, October 25, 1806, aged fifty-six years. His death was occasioned by his swallowing the bone of a chicken. His wife, the daughter of I. Flucker, secretary of Massachusetts, died June 20, 1824. In April, 1796, he lost two children by death in one week; and in a manner almost as sudden, he had previously lost five children.

He was distinguished for his military talents, and possessed in an uncommon degree the esteem and confidence of Washington. Though a soldier and a statesman, he did not dismiss the amiable virtues of the man. There was a frankness in his manners which was pleasing, and his heart was susceptible of the kindly affections.

LORD ERSKINE.

THOMAS, LORD ERSKINE, third son of David Henry Erskine, earl of Buchan, was born in 1750. He received his education at Edinburgh high school and St. Andrew's university: but the contracted means of his family rendering a profession necessary, he went to sea as a midshipman; but he quitted the service after four years, and entered into the Royals, or first regiment of foot, with whom he embarked for Minorca in 1770. His friends, however, and particularly his mother, who properly appreciated his great talents, advised him to lay aside all thoughts of a military life, and embrace the legal profession. Accordingly, at the age of twenty-six, he entered at Trinity college, Cambridge, in 1777, merely to obtain a degree, to which he was entitled as the son of a nobleman; and, at the same time, became a student of Lincoln's Inn. He also placed himself as a pupil in the office of Mr. (afterward judge) Buller, then an eminent special pleader, and subsequently in that of Mr. (afterward baron) Wood. He was called to the bar in 1778, and obtained immediate success. In May, 1783, he received a silk gown, and the same year was elected member of parliament for Portsmouth, and unanimously rechosen for the same borough on every succeeding election, until raised to the peerage.

In 1792, being employed to defend Thomas Paine, when prosecuted for the second part of his "Rights of Man," he declared that, waiving all personal convictions, he deemed it right, as an English advocate, to obey the call: by the maintenance of which principle, he lost his office of attorney-general to the prince of Wales (afterward George IV.). The most arduous effort, however, in his professional life, arose out of the part cast upon him, in conjunction with



Statue of Lord Erskine, by Chantrey, in Lincoln's Inn Chapel.

Mr. (afterward Sir Vicary) Gibbs, in the trials of Hardy, Tooke, and others, for high-treason, in 1794. These trials lasted for several weeks, and the ability displayed by Mr. Erskine on this eventful occasion was admired and acknowledged by all parties. He was a strenuous opposer of the war with France; and wrote a pamphlet, entitled "A View of the Causes and Consequences of the War with France;" when such was the attraction of his name, that it ran through the unprecedented number of forty-eight editions! In 1802, the prince of Wales not only restored him to his office of attorney-general, but made him keeper of his seals for the duchy of Cornwall.

On the death of Mr. Pitt, in 1806, when Lord Grenville received the commands of George III. to form a new administration, Mr. Erskine was created a peer, and raised to the dignity of lord high chancellor of Great Britain; but the dissolution of the administration of which he formed a part happening during the following year, he retired with the usual pension.

During the latter years of his life, Lord Erskine labored under considerable pecuniary difficulties; while numerous follies and eccentricities (to use no harsher epithets) obscured the brilliancy of his former fame. He was the author of a political romance, in two volumes, entitled "Armata," and some pamphlets on the Greek cause. But it was at the bar that he shone with peculiar lustre. There the resources of his mind were made apparent by instantaneous bursts of eloquence, combining logic, rhetorical skill, and legal precision; while he triumphed over the passions and prejudices of his hearers, and moulded them to his will. He died in 1823, aged seventy-three. A statue of Lord Erskine, by the celebrated sculptor Chantrey,* was erected in the chapel† of Lincoln's Inn.

* FRANCIS CHANTREY, R. A., F. R. S., F. S. A., &c., a sculptor, of first rate eminence, was born of village parents, at Norton, near Sheffield, England, in 1781. When a mere child he discovered considerable talent in drawing and modelling; and during his apprenticeship with Mr. Ramsey, a carver and gilder at Sheffield, the whole of his leisure hours were most assiduously devoted to the study and practice of his favorite pursuits. Having made a compensation to his master for the remaining term of his apprenticeship, he paid a short visit to London, and attended the school of the Royal Academy. He then returned to Sheffield, where, at twenty years of age, he may be said to have commenced business; but his career of fame and fortune was not begun until 1809, when he received an order from Mr. Alexander, the architect, for four colossal busts of Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan, and Nelson, for the Trinity house, and for the Greenwich Naval Asylum. From this period he was unrelaxing in his efforts, and continually successful; and, among the admirable productions of his chisel, there appeared, in 1817, that exquisite group of "The Sleeping Children" (the daughters of the Rev. W. Robinson), in Lichfield cathedral, universally acknowledged as images of artless beauty and innocent and unaffected grace. Orders now crowded in upon him in number beyond his ability to execute. Among them may be noticed his busts of Lord Castlereagh, Sir Walter Scott, the poets Wordsworth and Southey, Mr. Canning, John Rennie, George IV., William IV., Queen Victoria, Lord Melbourne, Sir Robert Peel, and the duke of Wellington; and his statues of James Watt, Dr. Cyril Jackson, Grattan, Washington, Sir Joseph Banks, Spencer, Percival, Canning, Sir John Malcolm, Dr. Dalton, Roscoe, General Gillespie, Lady Louisa Russell (when a child), Bishops Bathurst and Ryder, &c. To this list we may add his principal statues in bronze, viz.: George IV. at Brighton and in Edinburgh, Pitt in Hanover Square (London) and Edinburgh, and the equestrian statues of Sir Thomas Munro at Madras, and the duke of Wellington for the city of London. Chantrey died November 25, 1841, in the sixty-first year of his age.

† Lincoln's Inn chapel was erected from a design by INIGO JONES, a celebrated architect, and the reviver of classical architecture in England in the seventeenth century, a brief sketch of whom may not be out of place here. He was born in London, about 1572, and was first apprenticed to a joiner, but his talents for drawing having attracted the notice of the earls of Arundel and Pembroke, the latter supplied him with the means of visiting Italy, for the purpose of studying landscape-painting. He went to Venice, where the works of Palladio inspired him with a taste for architecture; and he afterward devoted all his energies in pursuit of that noble branch of art. He soon acquired fame, and obtained the situation of first architect to Christian IV., king of Denmark, who, visiting his brother-in-law, James I., in 1606, took Jones with him to England. Being induced to remain, the queen chose him as her architect; and the place of surveyor-general of the board of works was granted to him in reversion. In 1620, he was appointed one of the commissioners for repairing St. Paul's cathedral; but this was not commenced till 1623. In the following reign he was much employed in preparing masques for the entertainment of the court, and in building the banqueting-house at Whitehall; but while thus engaged, he fell under the displeasure of Ben Jonson, who ridiculed him on the stage, and made him the subject of his epigrammatic muse. Jones realized a handsome fortune; but being a Roman catholic, and a partisan of royalty, he suffered severely in the civil war. At length, worn down by sorrow and suffering, he died, July 21, 1652, aged eighty. He wrote a work on the monument at Stonehenge, giving the singular opinion that it was a Roman temple, dedicated to Cælus.



JAMES MADISON.

JAMES MADISON, the fourth president of the United States, was a native of Orange county, Virginia, where he was born, on the 16th of March, 1751. He was of Welsh origin, and his ancestors were among the first settlers of Virginia. He graduated at Princeton in 1771, and two years afterward commenced the practice of the law in his native state. He was elected to the general assembly of Virginia in 1776, and the next year was appointed a member of the executive council. He was chosen a delegate to the continental congress in 1779-'80, and continued in that post until 1784. Two years afterward, he was appointed a delegate to a convention held at Annapolis, Md., for the purpose of adopting uniform commercial regulations binding upon all the colonies. But five states were represented, and the delegates adjourned in recommending a national convention of all the states, to be held at Philadelphia, in May, 1787. At this convention, of which Mr. Madison was an active and leading member, the constitution of the United States was finally adopted—Mr. Madison generally agreeing with General Washington in the necessity for a strong national government. Returning from the national convention, Mr. Madison was elected to the state convention for ratifying the constitution, and exerted all his energy and influence to secure that object. It was finally achieved by the vote of eighty-nine to seventy-nine, and Virginia consequently gave in her adhesion to the constitution. But in the state legislature the democrats were in the majority, and an attempt made to elect Mr. Madison to the United States senate was defeated. He was, however, elected to the house of representatives by one of the congressional districts, and remained a leading member of Congress until the close of Washington's administration. Gradually

however, his political sympathies seemed to have cooled, and he opposed the funding system, the national bank, and other measures supposed to originate with Mr. Hamilton—acting generally with Mr. Jefferson, then secretary of state, and his friends.

In 1794, Mr. Madison married Mrs. Dolly Paine Tod, of Philadelphia, the widow of a lawyer of Pennsylvania, who died in less than three years after her first marriage. This lady's maiden name was Paine; and her father, who belonged to the society of Friends, had removed from Virginia to Philadelphia. She was about twenty years younger than Mr. Madison, and by her agreeable manners, and numerous graces of mind and person, is justly esteemed one of the most distinguished women of her time.

In 1794, Madison introduced into Congress a series of resolutions on the subject of commerce with foreign nations, based on a previous report, made by Mr. Jefferson. He ever after continued to act with the republican party, and in 1797, retired from Congress, and accepted a seat in the Virginia legislature. Here, in 1798, he made a report on the alien and sedition laws of Mr. Adams, which has since been regarded as the text-book of state-rights.

In 1801, Mr. Madison was appointed secretary of state by Mr. Jefferson, which important post he occupied during the whole of Mr. Jefferson's administration, and succeeded him as president, in 1809, having been nominated and elected by the democratic party. In the third year of his administration, the commercial difficulties which had for a long time existed between Great Britain and the United States broke out into open rupture, and war was declared by Congress against the mother-country. Mr. Madison was strongly opposed to this extreme measure, and it was only upon the urgent persuasion of the leading members of his party, that he, at last, yielded his consent. Shortly after, he was re-nominated and elected to the presidency.

The causes and events of this war have been too often, and too frequently discussed, as well in books and histories as in the journals of the day, to render necessary any elaborate notice of it. Suffice it to say, that Mr. Madison showed his willingness to conclude it honorably, on the first occasion, in consequence of which a treaty of peace was signed in Ghent, in the month of December, 1814. During this war of 1812, the British forces advanced to Washington, and captured the public buildings of the general government, burning them to the ground. Mr. Madison and several of his officers narrowly escaped falling into the hands of the enemy, and saved themselves only by a precipitate flight. It is said that the preservation of the "Declaration of Independence," and other valuable papers, was owing to the courage of Mrs. Madison, who carried them away with her own hands.

After the establishment of peace, which was hailed with sincere joy by the people of all parties, agriculture and commerce began sensibly to revive; but the interests of manufactures drooped for want of adequate government protection. After serious deliberation, Mr. Madison embraced the views of the protectionists. At the same time, he changed his opinions on the subject of a national bank, and signed the bill incorporating the bank of the United States, in 1816, although he had opposed the charter of the old bank as unconstitutional, and had, in 1815, returned to Congress the bill for the recharter of the old bank.

Mr. Madison was sixty-six years of age when he retired from public life to his beautiful seat of Montpelier, Orange county, Virginia, where the remainder of his days was passed in peaceful and domestic pleasures. He had seen his country pass honorably through the trying scenes of a war, and he resigned the presidential office into the hands of his friend and successor, James Monroe, amid the blessings of general peace and prosperity. In 1829, he was sent to the state convention to revise the constitution of Virginia, and for several years acted in the capacity of visiter and rector of the university of Virginia.

Besides, he was president of an agricultural society, before which he delivered an address still celebrated for its beauty, eloquence, and practical ideas.

Having arrived at a good old age, and numbered eighty-five years, the mortal career of Mr. Madison was closed on the 28th of June, 1836. Congress and other public bodies adopted testimonials of respect for his memory. He left no children.

In his personal appearance, Mr. Madison was of small stature, and rather protuberant in front. He had a calm expression, penetrating blue eyes, and was slow and grave in his speech. At the close of his presidency he seemed to be care-worn, with an appearance of more advanced age than was the fact. He was bald on the top of his head, wore his hair powdered, and generally dressed in black. His manner was modest and retiring, but in conversation he was pleasing and instructive, having a mind well stored with the treasures of learning, and being particularly familiar with the political world. On his accession to the presidency he restored the custom of levées at the presidential mansion, which had been abolished by Mr. Jefferson. It was on the occasion of these levées, that his accomplished lady, by her polite and attractive attentions and manners, shone with peculiar lustre. Mr. Madison was fond of society, although he had travelled but little; never having visited foreign countries, or seen much of the people and country over which he presided.

When a member of deliberative bodies, Mr. Madison was an able debater, having acquired self-confidence by slow degrees. As a writer, he has few equals among American statesmen, and the style of his public documents and his correspondence has always been much admired. He was at the time of his death, the last surviving signer of the constitution, and the part he bore in framing that instrument, his subsequent advocacy of it, by his writings, with his adherence to its provisions, obtained for him the title of "Father of the Constitution."



Residence of James Madison, Montpelier.



JOHN FLAXMAN.

JOHN FLAXMAN, the eminent sculptor, whose works have done so much to form the English school of design, was born July 6, 1755, in York, England, whence he was removed in his infancy to London, where his father, who was a moulder of figures, subsequently kept a shop in the Strand for the sale of plaster casts. The father's occupation, no doubt, contributed to call forth the genius of the son; but the boy very early began to give evidence of fondness for those arts to which his future life was devoted, and of singular taste and skill in the efforts of his uninstructed pencil. Like many more of the most distinguished cultivators of literature and art, he was prevented by the weakness and delicate health of his early years from mixing in the ruder sports of boys of his own age; and this, of course, gave him more time for solitary study. His father was not able to afford him the advantages of a regular education; but he rapidly acquired a great deal of knowledge by his own unaided efforts.

When he was fifteen years old, young Flaxman was admitted a student in the Royal Academy. Here he was successful in a competition for the inferior honor of the silver medal; but on the contest for the gold one, Sir Joshua Reynolds, the president, awarded the prize to another. This was, perhaps, upon the whole, not an unfortunate incident for Flaxman, though he severely felt what he thought an injustice. His rival, notwithstanding his good fortune on this occasion, never rose to any distinction; but Flaxman, with the heroism of true genius, resolved to obliterate this defeat of his youth by future triumph, of the glory of which no such decision should be able to rob him. And this resolution he nobly fulfilled. His first employment was given him by the Messrs. Wedgwood, the productions of whose porcelain potteries he embellished with designs that gave at once a new character to this branch of British manufactures.

In 1782, Flaxman married; and five years afterward proceeded to visit Italy, where he remained till 1794, studying the celebrated monuments of the fine arts with which that country abounds, and at the same time exerting his own pencil in the production of works which soon spread his fame over Europe. Having then returned to England, he was in 1797 elected an associate, and in 1800 a member, of the Royal Academy. After this, he executed many great works in marble; and, as a lecturer, afforded some valuable contributions to the literature of his profession. For many years before his death his name ranked with the highest of the living artists of England. He died at his house in Buckingham street, London, on the 7th of December, 1826, in the seventy-second year of his age.

SAMUEL HAHNEMANN.

SAMUEL HAHNEMANN, founder of the system of medicine called homœopathy, was born at Meissen, in Upper Saxony on the 10th of April, 1755. His elementary education he received at the high school in his native town, where he became master of the classics, and the natural sciences. Botany was his favorite pursuit, and his hours of leisure were devoted to the collection and systematic arrangements of plants. Having chosen medicine for his profession, he successively studied at Leipsic, Vienna, and Erlangen, where he graduated in 1779. Mainly dependent on his own exertions for support, during this period, he employed a portion of his time in teaching, and in translating medical works.

He was appointed, in 1781, district physician at Commern, near Magdeburg, where he relieved his professional labors by an ardent study of chemistry and mineralogy. In the year 1784, he removed to Dresden, where he gained a high reputation in the hospitals as a judicious and skilful practitioner, but, struck with the absence of a guiding principle in therapeutics, and the great uncertainty of the healing art, he gradually withdrew himself as much as possible from practice, and endeavored to support his family by his old resource of translations of English and French medical authors, pursuing at the same time his favorite study of chemistry. His feelings at this period are best explained in his own words in a letter to the celebrated Hufeland, written many years after he had founded the system with which his name is now so intimately connected. "Eighteen years have elapsed since I quitted the beaten path in medicine. It was agony to me to walk in darkness with no other light than could be derived from books, when I had to heal the sick, and to prescribe, according to such or such an hypothesis concerning disease, substances which owe their place in the *Materia Medica* to an arbitrary decision. I could not conscientiously treat the unknown morbid conditions of my suffering brethren by these unknown medicines, which being very active substances, may, unless applied with the most rigorous exactness (which the physician can not exercise, because their peculiar effects have not yet been examined) so easily cause death, or produce new affections or chronic maladies often more difficult to remove than the original disease. That I might no longer incur the risk of doing injury, I engaged exclusively in chemistry and in literary occupations."

In the year 1790, while engaged upon the translation of the "*Materia Medica*" of Cullen, he was struck with the different explanations given of the mode of operation of Peruvian bark, in intermittent fever; and dissatisfied with them, he determined to try its effects upon himself. Finding that powerful doses of this substance produced symptoms strikingly analogous to those of that form of



Portrait of Samuel Hahnemann.

intermittent fever for which it was an acknowledged specific, he determined to try further experiments with other medicinal substances upon himself and upon some medical friends. He obtained similar results; that is, he produced by these agents factitious or medicinal disorders resembling the diseases of which they were esteemed curative; and thus, the first dawn of the law of *Similia similibus curantur*, or like cures like, gleamed upon him. In a work ascribed to Hippocrates, a similar doctrine had been enunciated, it had also been noticed by medical writers after his time; but Hahnemann was the first who assumed it to be the guiding principle in therapeutics, and supported his position by a series of experiments. Confident that he had discovered the long-sought-for law, he assiduously pursued his proving of medicines, and adopted the new principle in the treatment of his patients with (according to his own testimony and that of his disciples) a success fully commensurate with the limited means then at his disposal. Thus encouraged, he ventured in 1796, to announce his discovery to the medical world, in Hufeland's Journal, under the title of "An Essay on a New Principle of Discovering the Healing Virtues of Medical Substances, together with some Glances at those hitherto made."

Several years were spent in testing his principles by practice and making known the results in various publications. In 1810, he brought out his great

work the "Organon of the Rational Art of Healing," in which he developed his new system of treating disease; and for the first time gave it the name of "Homœopathy," by which it has since been distinguished. The word *homœopathy* is composed of the Greek words *omoios*, similar, and *pathos*, suffering, and by this signification presents the governing principle of Hahnemann's method of cure, viz., *heal similar with similar*. In 1811, the first part of the 'Materia Medica Pura,' was published, six volumes of which appeared in succession till it was completed in 1822.

In the year 1811, he returned to Leipsic, where he was appointed "magister legens." To prove his qualifications for this chair, he wrote an excellent treatise on the Hellebore of the ancients, "Dissertatio historico-medica de Helleborismo Veterum." At Leipsic he had an extensive practice, and was assisted by a great number of friends and pupils in the proving of his medicines. The apothecaries of that city, however, rose against him, and appealing to an old law long dormant, that forbade a physician to dispense his own prescriptions, they eventually, after some litigation, succeeded, in 1820, in obtaining a decision in their favor. Hahnemann, unwilling to risk his own reputation and that of his system upon medicines prepared and dispensed by individuals avowedly hostile to his medical tenets, had determined to retire from practice, when the duke of Anhalt Köthen offered him an asylum in his dominions, with the enjoyment of those privileges of which he had been deprived at Leipsic. It was during his sojourn at Köthen, in the year 1828, that he published in four volumes his work on "Chronic Diseases, their Peculiar Nature, and Homœopathic Cure." The disciples and admirers of Hahnemann caused a gold medal to be struck, to mark their attachment to the new system and their esteem for its founder, which was presented to him with appropriate honors, August 10th, 1829, it being the fiftieth anniversary of the day on which he obtained his doctorate.

Having been a widower for some years, he married in 1835, Marie Melanie d'Herville-Gohier, a French lady who had visited Köthen for the benefit of his advice, and at her desire he removed to Paris, where he remained in the active exercise of his profession till the time of his decease, which took place on the 2d of July, 1843, in the eighty-ninth year of his age.

A colossal statue of Hahnemann, executed in marble by Steinhäusser, was erected at Leipsic in 1851. It represents him seated, in the act of writing, and clad in a simple robe, not unlike his dressing-gown, somewhat idealized.

No extended memoir of Hahnemann has yet been written; his personal appearance and habits are thus described by a patient who visited him at Leipsic: "Locks of silver-white clustered round his high and thoughtful brow, from under which his animated eye shone with piercing brilliancy. His whole countenance had a quiet, searching, grand expression; only rarely did a gleam of fine humor play over the deep earnestness, which told of the many sorrows and conflicts endured. His carriage was upright, his step firm, his motions as lively as those of a man of thirty. When he went out his dress was of the simplest; a dark coat, with short small-clothes and stockings. But in his room at home, he preferred the old, household, gayly-figured dressing-gown, the yellow stockings, and black velvet cap. The long pipe was seldom out of his hand; and this smoking was the only infraction he allowed himself to commit upon his severe rules of regimen. His drink was water, milk, or white beer; his food of the most frugal sort. The whole of his domestic economy was as simple as his dress and food. Instead of a writing-desk, he used nothing but a large plain deal table, upon which there constantly lay three or four enormous folios, in which he had written the history of the cases of his patients, and which he used diligently to turn up and write in while conversing with them. For the examination of his patients was made with all the minuteness of which he has given us an example in the 'Organon.'



JOHN MARSHALL.

JOHN MARSHALL, the worthy successor of Jay* and Ellsworth† on the bench of the supreme court of the United States, was born at Germantown, in Virginia, on the 24th of September, 1755. The narrow fortune of his father, Thomas Marshall, who served with distinction as a colonel in the revolutionary army, compelled him to be almost exclusively the teacher of his children; and to his guiding hand, the chief-justice said, "he owed the solid foundation of all his success in life."

* JOHN JAY, the first chief-justice of the United States, was born in the city of New York, in 1745. He graduated at Columbia college in 1764, and in 1768 was admitted to the bar. He soon rose to eminence as a lawyer, and began to take an active part in politics. In 1774, he was elected to the continental Congress. In May, 1776, he was recalled from Congress by the provincial convention of New York, to aid in framing the government for that province, and to this it is owing that his name does not appear among the signers of the Declaration of Independence. Upon the organization of the state government in 1777, Mr. Jay was appointed chief-justice, and held this office till 1779. In November, 1778, he was again chosen a delegate to the continental Congress, and three days after taking his seat was elected president of that venerable body. In September, 1779, he was appointed minister plenipotentiary to the court of Spain, and he arrived at Cadiz in January of the following year. Having resigned his commission as minister in 1783, in 1784 he returned to the United States, and was placed at the head of the department for foreign affairs. In this post he remained till the adoption of the present constitution, when he was appointed by President Washington chief-justice of the United States. In 1794, he was sent as envoy extraordinary to the court of Great Britain, where he negotiated an important treaty, and before his return in 1795 he had been elected governor of his native state. In 1798, he was re-elected to this office, and in 1801 went into voluntary retirement. The remainder of his life was spent in the faithful discharge of the charitable duties, and he was publicly known only by the occasional appearance of his name, or the employment of his pen, in the service of philanthropy and piety. He died in 1829, aged eighty-four. Besides a variety of state papers and political essays, Mr. Jay was the author of the second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixty-fourth numbers of "The Federalist."

† OLIVER ELLSWORTH, the second chief-justice of the United States, was born at Windsor, in Connecticut, in 1745, and graduated at Princeton college, New Jersey, in 1766. Devoting himself to the practice of law, he soon rose to distinction for the energy of his mind and his eloquence. In 1777, he was chosen a delegate to the continental Congress from Connecticut. In 1780, he was elected into the council of Connecticut, and was a member of that body till 1784, when he was appointed a judge of the superior court. In 1787, he was elected a member of the convention which framed the federal constitution. In that assembly, illustrious for talents, erudition, and patriotism, he held a distinguished place. When the federal government was organized in 1789, Judge Ellsworth was chosen a member of the senate from Connecticut. In 1796, he was appointed by Washington chief-justice of the supreme court of the United States, but on account of ill health resigned the office in 1800. In 1799, he was appointed by President Adams envoy extraordinary to France, for the purpose of settling a treaty with that nation. He died in 1807, aged sixty-three.

At the age of fourteen, young Marshall was placed with the Rev. Mr. Campbell, in Westmoreland, where for a year he was instructed in Latin, and had for a fellow-student James Monroe. The succeeding year was passed at his father's, where he continued the study under the Rev. Mr. Thompson, a Scotch gentleman, which "was the whole of the classical tuition he ever obtained."

In the summer of 1775 he was appointed lieutenant in the "Minute Battalion," and had an honorable share in the battle of Great Bridge. In July, 1776, he was appointed first lieutenant in the eleventh Virginia regiment, on the continental establishment, which marched to the north in the ensuing winter; and in May, 1777, he was promoted to a captaincy. He was in the skirmish at Iron hill, and at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. He was one of that body of men, never surpassed in the history of the world, who, unpaid, unclothed, unfed, tracked the snows of Valley Forge with the blood of their footsteps in the rigorous winter of 1778, and yet turned not their faces from their country in resentment, or from their enemies in fear.

That part of the Virginia line which was not ordered to Charleston, South Carolina—being in effect dissolved by the expiration of the term of enlistment of the soldiers—the officers (among whom was Captain Marshall) were, in the winter of 1779-'80, directed to return home, in order to take charge of such men as the state legislature should raise for them. It was during this season of inaction that he availed himself of the opportunity of attending a course of law lectures given by Mr. Wythe, afterward chancellor of the state; and a course of lectures on natural philosophy, given by Mr. Madison, president of William and Mary college in Virginia. He left this college in the summer vacation of 1780, and obtained a license to practise law. In October he returned to the army, and continued in service until the termination of Arnold's invasion. After this period, and before the invasion of Phillips, in February, 1781, there being a redundancy of officers in the Virginia line, he resigned his commission.

The courts of law were closed during the invasion of Virginia, and not reopened until after the capitulation of Lord Cornwallis. Immediately after that event, Mr. Marshall commenced the practice of law, and soon rose to distinction at the bar.

In the spring of 1782, he was elected a member of the state legislature, and in the autumn of the same year a member of the executive council. In January, 1783, he married Miss Ambler, the daughter of a gentleman who was then treasurer of the state, and to whom he had become attached before he left the army. This lady lived for nearly fifty years after her marriage, to partake and enjoy the distinguished honors of her husband. In 1784, he resigned his seat at the council-board, in order to return to the bar; and he was immediately afterward again elected a member of the legislature for his native county of Fauquier, of which he was then only nominally an inhabitant, his actual residence being at Richmond. In 1787, he was elected a member from the county of Henrico; and though at that time earnestly engaged in the duties of his profession, he embarked largely in the political questions which then agitated the state, and indeed the whole confederacy. As a member of the legislature, he threw the weight of his influence in favor of a revision of the articles of confederation; and subsequently, as a member of the Virginia convention to ratify the federal constitution, distinguished himself by the powerful reasoning and eloquence he displayed in its behalf.

The constitution being adopted, Mr. Marshall was prevailed upon to serve in the legislature until 1792. From that time until 1795, he devoted himself exclusively to his profession. In 1795, when Jay's treaty was the absorbing theme of bitter controversy, he was elected to the house of delegates, and his speech in defence of the treaty, says Judge Story, "has always been repre-

sented as one of the noblest efforts of his genius. His vast powers of reasoning were displayed with the most gratifying success. . . . The fame of this admirable argument spread through the Union. Even with his political enemies it enhanced the estimate of his character; and it brought him at once to the notice of some of the most eminent statesmen who then graced the councils of the nation."

Soon after, Mr. Marshall, with Messrs. Pinckney and Gerry, were sent by President Adams as envoys extraordinary to France. The directory refused to negotiate, and though the direct object of the embassy failed, much was effected by the official papers the envoys addressed to Talleyrand, the French minister of foreign relations, in showing France to be in the wrong. These papers—models of skilful reasoning, clear illustration, accurate detail, and urbane and dignified moderation—have always been attributed to Marshall, and bear internal marks of it. Such was the impression made by the despatches, that on the arrival of Mr. Marshall in New York, in June, 1798, his entry had the *éclat* of a triumph. A public dinner was given to him by both houses of Congress (then holding its sessions in that city), "as an evidence of affection for his person, and of their grateful approbation of the patriotic firmness with which he sustained the dignity of his country during his important mission;" and the country at large responded with one voice to the sentiment pronounced at this celebration: "Millions for defence, but not a cent for tribute!"

In 1799, Mr. Marshall was elected a representative in Congress, where he soon took rank as the most effective debater in the house. In 1800, he was appointed secretary of state; and on the resignation of Mr. Ellsworth, in 1801, he was nominated by President Adams, and unanimously confirmed by the senate, as chief-justice of the United States, which station he continued to fill with unsullied dignity and pre-eminent ability, until the close of his mortal career, which occurred at Philadelphia, July 6, 1835, in the eightieth year of his age.

In the various spheres of a soldier, a lawyer, a legislator, an historian, and a judge, Mr. Marshall exhibited talents of the highest order, and established for himself an enduring reputation. But what strikes us as the most remarkable in his whole character, even more than his splendid talents, is the entire consistency of his public life and principles. There is nothing in either which calls for apology or concealment. Ambition never seduced him from his principles—popular clamor never deterred him from the strict performance of his duty. He lived as such a man should live, by and with his principles. If we were tempted to say in one word in what he excelled all other men, we should say, in wisdom*—in the union of that virtue, which ripened under the hardy discipline of principles, with that of knowledge, which constantly sifted and refined its old treasures, and as constantly gathered new. The constitution owes more to him than to any other single mind for its true interpretation.

Mr. Marshall was the author of a "Life of Washington," and also a "History of the Colonies planted by the English on the Continent of North America, from their Settlement to the Commencement of the War," which, for candor, accuracy, and comprehension, have received the highest encomiums.

* The following anecdote illustrates the effective manner in which he imparted this wisdom to others. Marshall was accustomed to go to market, and frequently unattended. Nothing was more usual than to see him returning at sunrise, with poultry in one hand, and vegetables in the other. On one of these occasions, a would-be fashionable young man, who had recently removed to Richmond, was swearing violently because he could hire no one to take home his turkey. Marshall stepped up, and ascertaining of him where he lived, replied, "That is my way, and I will take it for you." When arrived at his dwelling, the young man inquired, "What shall I pay you?"—"Oh, nothing," was the rejoinder, "you are welcome; it was on my way, and no trouble."—"Who is that polite old gentleman who brought home my turkey for me?" inquired the other of a bystander, as Marshall stepped away. "That," replied he, is John Marshall, chief-justice of the United States." The young man astounded, exclaimed, "Why did he bring home my turkey?"—"To give you a severe reprimand, and learn you to attend to your own business," was the answer.



GILBERT STUART.

GILBERT STUART, was born at Newport, Rhode Island, in 1755. Soon after leaving college, he made choice of painting as a profession, and not being able to find a proper master in this country, Copley being then gone to England, he embarked for that country in 1775, and put himself under the instruction of Mr. West, who was then in the zenith of his fame. Stuart soon became a favorite pupil of his master, and graduated from his school with a high reputation as a portrait-painter; he ranked second to no one, in London, but Sir Joshua Reynolds. While in the metropolis, he had the good fortune to become acquainted with Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and with many of their associates. These men were not only patrons of the arts, but the friend of artists. He painted several of them in a fine style, which spread his fame far and wide. From London he went to Ireland, and spent several years in Dublin. In this city he was without a rival, and had as much business as he could attend to. In the polished society of that hospitable and tasteful place he was a great favorite; and he relished the wit and gayety of the Irish beyond measure. Painters seldom feel contented to remain many years in one place. They are anxious to catch the admiration of many cities and different classes of society, to see new faces, and to study expression in every variety.

In 1794, Stuart returned to his native country, selecting Philadelphia as the place of his residence though much of his time was passed in the city of Washington in the practice of his profession. At this time, Washington was as he ever will be, the model of every lover of liberty, and the world were anxious to

obtain a correct likeness of the noble patriot. Representations of the great man had been made by painters, sculptors, and engravers, but all had failed to inspire their works with those characteristic lineaments which portrayed the nobility of the soul within; Stuart was urged to employ his pencil in achieving the desired result. Washington had now retired from office and was enjoying the pursuits of private life at Mount Vernon. He had been so often annoyed by every fledgling artist, that he came to the determination to sit no more for any one; but Stuart's fame, and Mrs. Washington's solicitations, overruled his resolution, and the hero and statesman was again seated for his picture. In the chair for the painter, Washington was apt to fall into a train of thought, and become abstracted from the things around him, and of course most of the likenesses of him, show more of gravity of muscle, than of the divinity of intelligence. When he sat to Stuart, as the latter has often stated, an apathy seemed to seize him, and a vacuity spread over his countenance, most appalling to the painter. The best portrait-painter of the age, was now to take the likeness of the greatest man of all ages; and the artists and the patriots of all countries were interested in it. To have failed in getting a good likeness would have been death to the artist's fame, and a perpetual source of mortification to the people of the country. Stuart was like Washington, not easily overcome; he made several fruitless attempts to awaken the heroic spirit in him, by talking of battles, but in vain; he next tried to warm up the patriot and sage, by turning the conversation to the republican ages of antiquity; this was equally unsuccessful. At length the painter struck on the master-key, and opened a way to his mind which he has so happily transferred to the canvass with the features of his face. In the whole of this picture, in every limb, as well as feature, the martial air of the warrior-chief, is admirably mingled with the dignity and majesty of the statesman and sage. It was a proper period in the life of Washington for a good picture. The bloom and beauty of youth have no majesty or greatness in them on the canvass; maturity and gravity are necessary to give a picture a proper effect; the lines of thought must be in the face; the marks of dangers braved, and duties done, must be there also. Nor should the painter wait until decrepitude and the dullness of age approach. There is a period in the life of man, when Nature seems to stop, having matured her work, to contemplate it herself, before she suffers Time to begin his ravages. This was that moment. The picture, like the original, was peerless. The artist himself copied it several times with great success. It has been copied a thousand times by others, and every copy contains something of the first likeness—no small proof of its excellence and truth.

Stuart tarried a year or two in the city of Washington, and during the time painted portraits of John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and many other distinguished men of our country. He removed from Washington to Philadelphia, which was then greatly in advance of the other cities and great towns in the United States, in every branch of the fine arts. Here, too, he was a favorite in society, as well as in his profession. His next remove was to Boston, where he continued in the pursuit of his profession with the greatest success till the time of his death in 1828, in the seventy-fourth year of his age.

The fame of Stuart rests chiefly on his merits as a portrait-painter; and though he often expressed a desire to execute some historical work, he never found time for the purpose. He possessed literary genius of a high order; his penetration was acute; he reasoned upon the principles of his art with a depth of philosophy worthy of a master. His eloquence was peculiar and attractive; his voice was strong and deep; his enunciation clear and distinct; and his countenance came in aid of his voice, for his features were bold and lion-like, and no stranger ever passed him without mentally saying, "That is no ordinary man."



THADDEUS KOSCIUSKO.

THADDEUS KOSCIUSKO, the last generalissimo of the republic of Poland, one of the noblest characters of his age, was descended from an ancient and noble, though not rich family, in Lithuania, and was born in 1756. He was educated in the military school at Warsaw. The prince Adam Czartoriski, perceiving his talents and industry, made him second lieutenant in the corps of cadets, and sent him, at his own expense, to France, where he studied drawing and the military art. After his return, he was made captain. But the consequences of an unhappy passion for the daughter of Sosnowski, marshal of Lithuania (who was afterward married to the prince Joseph Lubomirski), obliged him to leave Poland.

Kosciusko now resolved to come to America. Solitary studies, particularly in history and mathematics, and an elevated character, prepared him for the struggle for freedom, in which he engaged under Washington, who made him his aid. He distinguished himself particularly at the siege of Fort Ninety-Six, in Georgia, and was highly esteemed by the army and the commander-in-chief and Congress conferred on him the rank of general. He and Lafayette were the only foreigners admitted into the Society of the Cincinnati.

Having thus contributed to the firm establishment of the American republic, Kosciusko returned to Poland in 1786. When the Polish army was formed (1789), the diet appointed him a major-general. He declared himself for the constitution of May 3, 1791, and served under Prince Joseph Poniatowski. In the campaign of 1792, he distinguished himself against the Russians at Zieloneck and Dubienka. At the latter place, under cover of some works which he had thrown up in the course of twenty-four hours, he repulsed, with four thousand men, three successive attacks of eighteen thousand Russians, who prevailed only after a loss of four thousand men! Kosciusko retired without having suffered severely. When King Stanislaus submitted to Catharine, he with sixteen other officers left the army, and was therefore obliged to retire from Poland. He went to Leipsic, in Saxony; and the legislative assembly of France, at this time, gave him the rights of a French citizen.

The Poles becoming impatient under the oppression of Russia, some of Kosciusko's friends in Warsaw determined to make an effort for the liberation of their country. They chose Kosciusko their general, and made him acquainted with their plans. He imparted them to the counts Ignatius Potocki and Kolontai in Dresden, who thought the enterprise injudicious. Kosciusko, however, went to the frontier, and sent General Zajonczek and General Dzialynski into the Russian provinces of Poland (Lithuania, Courland, Livonia, &c.), to prepare everything in silence. But when the Polish army was merged, in part, in the Russian, and the remainder reduced to fifteen thousand men, the insurrection broke out before the time fixed on. In Posen, Madalinski forcibly opposed the dissolution of his regiment. All now flew to arms; and the Russian garrison was immediately expelled from Cracow. Just at this moment Kosciusko entered the city. The citizens now formed the act of confederation of Cracow (March 24, 1794), and Kosciusko, at their head, called upon the Poles to restore the constitution of May 3, 1791.

Kosciusko then advanced to meet the Russian forces. Without artillery, at the head of only four thousand men, part of whom were armed only with scythes and pikes, he defeated twelve thousand Russians at Raclawice, April 4, 1794. His army was now increased to nine thousand men, and he formed a junction with General Grochowski. In the meantime, the Russian garrisons of Warsaw and Wilna had been put to death, or made prisoners. Kosciusko checked the outbreak of popular fury, sent troops against Volhynia, and organized the government at Warsaw. He marched out of the city, with thirteen thousand men, to oppose seventeen thousand Russians and Prussians, attacked them at Szezecocini, June 6, but was defeated after an obstinate conflict. He retreated to his entrenched camp before Warsaw, while the Prussians marched to the capture of Cracow. Disturbances broke out, in consequence, in Warsaw, on the 28th of June, in which the people murdered a part of the prisoners, and hung some Poles who were connected with the Russians; but Kosciusko punished the guilty, and restored order.

The king of Prussia now formed a junction with the Russians, and besieged Warsaw with sixty thousand men. Kosciusko, however, kept up the courage of his countrymen. After two months of bloody fighting, he repelled, with ten thousand men, a general assault. All Great Poland now rose, under Dombrowski, against the Prussians. This circumstance, together with the loss of a body of artillery, compelled the king of Prussia to raise the siege of Warsaw. Thus this bold general, with an army of twenty thousand regular troops and forty thousand armed peasants, maintained himself against four hostile armies, amounting together to one hundred and fifty thousand men. His great power consisted in the confidence which his fellow-citizens reposed in him. The nephew of King Stanislaus, once his general, served under him. Kosciusko had unlimited power in the republic, but he displayed the integrity of

Washington and the activity of Cæsar. He attended to procuring supplies, superintended the raising and payment of money, and prevented plundering and fraud; and was equally active in the council and the field. His days and nights, all his powers, were devoted to his country. He secured the administration of justice, abolished the serfdom of the peasants, and finally, on the 29th of May, 1795, restored to the nation, in the supreme national council which he established, the great power which had been delegated to him.

Catharine at length decided the contest by an overwhelming superiority of numbers. Suwarrow defeated the Poles under Sierakowski at Brzec, in Volhynia, September 18 and 19. Reppin penetrated through Lithuania, and formed a union with Suwarrow. General Fersen was to support them with twelve thousand men. To prevent this, Kosciusko marched from Warsaw with twenty-one thousand men. Poninski was to have supported him with his division, but the Russians intercepted the messenger. The united Russian army under Fersen attacked the Poles, who were not more than one third as strong as the Russians. October 10, at Macziewice, about fifty miles from Warsaw. They were three times repulsed, but, on the fourth attack, they broke through the Polish lines. Kosciusko, covered with wounds, fell from his horse, exclaiming, "*Finis Poloniae*!" and was made prisoner by the enemy. In losing him, his country lost all. Suwarrow stormed Praga (a fortified suburb, connected with Warsaw by a bridge over the Vistula), November 4, which was followed up by a terrible slaughter of the Poles; and the capital itself capitulated to him on the 9th, on which occasion he sent his famous despatch to his imperial mistress at St. Petersburg—"Order reigns in Warsaw!" In the meantime, Madalinski left Great Poland, and an Austrian army appeared before Lublin.

But the noble efforts of the conquered had awakened the regard of Europe toward the unhappy country, and the dearest hopes of the nation—the restoration of their monarchy, with a free constitution—found a powerful support in public opinion. Catharine caused the hero and his noble colleagues, who were prisoners-of-war, to be thrown into a stateprison. On the accession of her son, however, the emperor Paul I. (the father of the emperors Alexander and Nicholas), that monarch gave them their liberty, and distinguished Kosciusko by marks of his esteem. He presented his own sword to the general, who declined it with these words: "I no longer need a sword, since I have no longer a country!" To the day of his death, he never again wore a sword. Paul then presented him with fifteen hundred peasants, and his friend Niemcewicz, the poet, with one thousand. When on the Russian frontier, Kosciusko declined this present by a letter.

He and his friend now came by the way of France and London (where Kosciusko was treated with distinction) to America in 1797. His fortune was very small. On his return to his native country after the war of the Revolution, he had received a pension from the United States, and he now found here such a reception as he deserved.

In 1798, Kosciusko went to France. His countrymen in the Italian army (under the French republic) presented to him the sabre of King John Sobieski of Poland, the great conqueror of the Turks, which had been found in 1799 at Loretto. Napoleon afterward formed the plan of restoring Poland to its place among the nations, and thus, at the same time, injuring Russia and extending his own power over the east of Europe. But Kosciusko would take no part in this struggle, which was conducted by Dombrowski, in 1807 and 1808, being prevented less by ill health than by having given his word to Paul I. never to serve against the Russians. To Napoleon's proposals he answered that "he would exert himself in the cause of Poland when he saw the country possessed of its ancient territories, and having a free constitution." Fouché, Napoleon's celebrated chief of police, tried every means to carry him to Poland. An ap-

peal to the Poles, which appeared under his name in "The Moniteur" of November 1, 1806, he declared to be spurious. Having purchased an estate in the neighborhood of Fontainebleau, he lived there in retirement until 1814. On the 9th of April that year he wrote to the emperor Alexander, to ask of him an amnesty for Poles in foreign lands, and to request him to become king of Poland, and to give to the country a free constitution, like that of England.

In 1815, Kosciusko travelled with Lord Stewart, a British nobleman, into Italy; and, in 1816, he settled at Soleure, in Switzerland. In 1817, he abolished serfdom on his estate of Siecnowicze, in Poland. He afterward lived in retirement, enjoying the society of a few friends. Agriculture was his favorite occupation. A fall with his horse from a precipice, not far from Vevay, occasioned his death, October 16, 1817, at Soleure, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. He was never married. In 1818, Prince Jablonowski, at the expense of the emperor Alexander, removed his body, which, at the request of the Polish senate, the emperor allowed to be deposited in the tomb of the kings of Poland at Cracow. A monument was also erected to his memory, and the women of Poland went into mourning for his loss.

WOLFGANG MOZART.

JOHN CHRYSOSTOM WOLFGANG AMADEUS MOZART, the great musician, was the son of Leopold Mozart, one of the musicians belonging to the chapel of the prince-archbishop of Salzburg, Bavaria, in which town he was born, January 27, 1756. He, and a sister four years older than himself, named Mary Anne, alone of a family of seven children, survived the years of infancy. His father and mother were both remarkable for their good looks—an advantage which their son did not inherit. But he was, almost from the cradle, a prodigy of musical genius. He was only three years old when his attention was excited in the most extraordinary manner by the lessons which his father then began to give his sister on the harpsichord; and in another year he was rapidly learning to play minuets and other pieces of music himself. At the age of five, he composed numerous pieces, which his father wrote down.

Music now became the child's only passion; the society of his little playmates was abandoned; he would have willingly remained at his harpsichord almost from morning to night. At this period he gave signs of a very affectionate and sensitive disposition. He would frequently ask the persons about him if they loved him, and an answer in the negative, made in joke, affected him to tears.

Soon after this, his father determined to exhibit him at the different German courts. In the autumn of 1762, accordingly, the whole family proceeded to Vienna. Here the boy played before the emperor Francis I., when his performance excited the utmost astonishment among some of the first proficients in the art. It was with reluctance, indeed, that he would consent to play except to those whom he believed to be judges of music. When he first sat down to his instrument, with the emperor by his side, "Is not M. Wagenseil here?" he said, addressing himself to his majesty; "we must send for him—he understands the thing." That composer was accordingly brought forward to occupy the place of the emperor; upon which the young performer remarked, "Sir, I am going to play one of your concertos, and you will turn the leaves for me." When the family returned to Salzburg, Mozart brought with him a small violin, which he learned to play with very little instruction. An able violin-player of the name of Wenzl called one day on his father, to ask his opinion of six



Portrait of Mozart.

trios he had just composed. They proceeded to try them, Wenzl himself playing the first violin, Mozart's father the bass, and a performer of the name of Schachner the second violin. Young Mozart begged hard to be allowed to play this last part, but his father angrily refused his request, naturally conceiving it to be a childish whim. At last, however, on the good-humored intercession of Schachner, the child was allowed to play along with him on his little violin, and cautioned by his father to make little noise. In a few minutes, Schachner, nodding to his companions, quietly laid down his instrument, and Mozart went on alone, playing his part with the utmost accuracy and steadiness, to the admiration and astonishment of the party.

The delicacy of his ear was wonderful. He could distinguish the slightest difference in the pitch of tone; and every false or harsh sound, not softened by some concord, gave him exquisite pain. He had an invincible horror at the sound of a trumpet, when not played in concert with other instruments. His father imagined he might cure this dislike by sounding a trumpet in his presence, and tried the experiment, notwithstanding the child's entreaties; but at the first blast he became pale, and fell on the floor. He was fond of playing on Schachner's violin, on account of the sweetness of its tone; and Schachner used to tune it, and leave it with him. One day, when Schachner came to visit his father, Mozart remarked to him that, the last time he had tuned his violin, he had not kept it at its former pitch. "It is half a quarter of a tone," he said, "lower than this of mine." They at first laughed at this extreme exactness; but the father, who had often observed the extraordinary delicacy of his son's ear, and his memory for sounds, desired him to bring Schachner's violin, and it actually proved to be half a quarter of a tone lower than the other!

In July, 1763, when Mozart was seven years old, the family set out on an extensive journey, and visited in succession Munich, Augsburg, Mannheim, Frankfort, Coblenz, Brussels, and lastly Paris; in all of which cities his performances were listened to with universal delight and wonder. Nor did he produce less effect when, in April, 1764, he made his appearance in England. After playing the organ in the Royal chapel, he and his sister gave a grand concert, all the symphonies of which were of his own composition. "Notwithstanding their continual removals," says his Life by M. Schlichtegroll, "they practised with the greatest regularity, and Wolfgang began to sing difficult airs, which he executed with great expression. The incredulous, at Paris and at London, had put him to the trial with various difficult pieces of Bach, Handel, and other masters: he played them immediately, at first sight, and with the greatest possible correctness. He played one day, before the king of England (George III.), a piece full of melody, from the bass only. At another time, Christian Bach, the queen's music-master, took little Mozart between his knees, and played a few bars. Mozart then continued, and they thus played alternately a whole sonata, with such precision, that those who did not see them thought it was executed by the same person. During his residence in England, that is, when he was eight years old, Wolfgang composed six sonatas, which were engraved at London, and dedicated to the queen."

Mozart remained in England till July, 1765, and then returning to the continent, made a tour through the principal towns of the Low Countries. After this he revisited Paris, and thence proceeded by the way of Lyons and Switzerland to his native place, which he reached in November, 1766. He remained at home, assiduously engaged in the practice of his art, with the exception of a short period in the year 1768, when he performed at Vienna before the emperor Joseph II., who ordered him to compose the music of a comic opera. It was approved by Hasse and by Metastasio, but its performance was prevented by a cabal among the singers. At the consecration of the new church of the Orphans, he composed the music of the service, and conducted the performance of it in the presence of the imperial court, though then but a child of twelve years old!

At length, in December, 1769, Mozart set out for Italy, in company with his father. Though he had now reached his fourteenth year, the additional skill he had acquired more than compensated for any diminution of the wonder that had at first been excited by his extreme youth. He was now a perfectly accomplished musician; and his performances, being in themselves nearly all that the most refined taste and science could desire, required no tale of the marvellous to set them off. After visiting Milan, Bologna, and Florence, he reached Rome just before Passion week. Pope Ganganelli invited him to the Quirinal palace, where he had the honor of performing privately before his holiness. In the course of the conversation, the approaching performances in the Sistine chapel were spoken of, particularly the famous *Miserere* of Gregorio Allegri. Mozart, with the *naïveté* of his age, requested a copy from the pope, which he declined giving, explaining, in kind terms, that compliance was out of his power, because the piece was forbidden to be copied under pain of excommunication. The young musician, however, obtained permission to attend the single rehearsal which preceded the public performance. He listened with the most earnest attention; and, on quitting the chapel, he hastened home and wrote down the notes. At the public performance he had the manuscript concealed in his hat, and having filled up some omissions, and corrected some errors in the inner parts, he had the satisfaction to know that he possessed the treasure so jealously watched. The next time he was invited to play before the pope, he ventured to mention what he had done, and produced the manuscript. The pope listened with amazement, but said with a smile, "The prohibition can not extend to the

memory, and I think you may escape the penalty of excommunication." This composition, afterward published from a copy sent as a present from Pope Pius VI. to the emperor of Germany, was compared with the manuscript of Mozart, and it was found that there was not the difference of a single note! It was published in London, under the superintendence of Dr. Burney, the year after Mozart thus got possession of it. His progress through this land of music was a continued triumph. While he was playing at Naples, the audience suddenly took it into their heads that a ring which he wore on his finger was a talisman, and interrupted the performance until he consented to lay it aside, and to convince them that he was not indebted to the art of magic for his wonderful power. Returning to Milan, he there produced his opera of the "Mithridate," which was played for twenty nights in succession.

For some succeeding years, Mozart's time was principally spent at Salzburg, with occasional visits to Milan, Munich, and Vienna. His reputation had now spread through all Europe, and he was desirous to establish himself in some place where he could gain an independence by his talents. His father suggested Paris; and he set out for that city, accompanied by his mother only, in September, 1777; but, tarrying in the hope of gaining worthy employment in Munich, he did not reach Paris until the following spring. Soon after their arrival, his mother, to whom he was tenderly attached, died; and that event, added to the strong contempt with which he regarded the then prevailing musical style of the French, determined him to return to his father. "You write me," he says to his father, "to pay many visits, in order to make new acquaintances and renew the old; but this is not possible beyond a certain point. The distances are too great, and the streets too dirty for walking; and in a coach one has the pleasure of spending an enormous sum in a single day, which is pure loss, for here the people pay you a great many compliments, but nothing else. They request me to visit them on such a day. I play: they exclaim, 'O he is a prodigy! inconceivable! amazing!'—and then, 'Adieu,' and that is all. I have already spent a great deal of money in coaches, and very often for *not* meeting people. Paris is much changed. The French are not nearly so polite as they were fifteen years ago: at present they verge very nearly on grossness." He afterward says: "If there were in this place any one possessed of ears to hear, a heart to feel, and the slightest idea of music, I should console myself for all these vexations. But I am among brute-beasts as regards music."

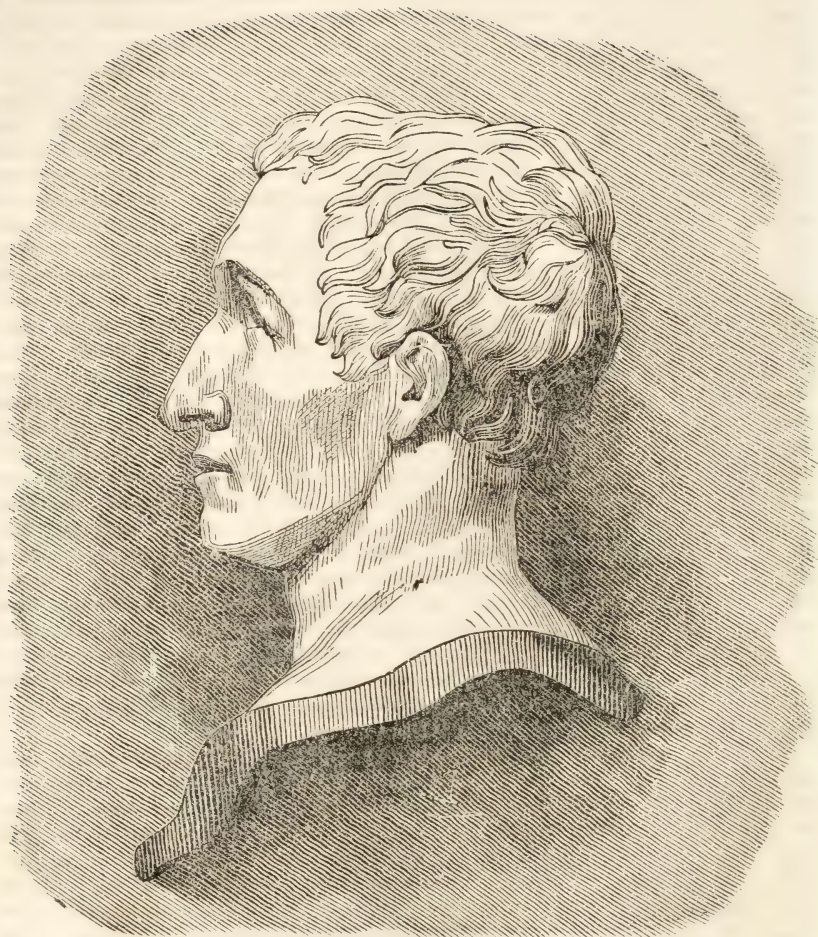
Mozart accordingly returned to Salzburg in 1779, but in November of that year he proceeded to Vienna; and in this capital he remained till the close of his life, in the service of the emperor Joseph II., to whom he was warmly attached. He refused more liberal offers from other sovereigns, particularly one from the king of Prussia of three thousand crowns a year, saying, "Ought I to leave my good emperor?" Here, at the age of twenty-five, he married Made-moiselle Constance Weber, a celebrated actress, who proved to him one of the best of wives; and it was in the first glow of his passion for this lady, that he composed his famous opera of "Idomeneo," which he always regarded as the greatest of his works. After this, he wrote his "Nozze di Figaro," his "Don Giovanni," his "Zauberflöte" ("Magic Flute"), and his "Clemenza di Tito," which all rank among the noblest triumphs of musical genius. The librettos to the two former of these were written by Lorenzo Da Ponte, who died in New York a few years since, and a sketch of whose life is given on another page of this work.

Mozart's last work was his celebrated "Requiem." One day, it is said, he received a visit from a stranger, apparently of some consideration, who said that a person of rank, who had lost a dear relative, was desirous of commemorating that event by the performance of a solemn service, for which he requested

Mozart to compose a requiem. Mozart engaged to execute the work in a month; and, on the stranger desiring to know the price he put upon it, mentioned a hundred ducats, which the visiter laid upon the table, and disappeared. Mozart, whose health had long been declining, remained lost in thought for some time; he then suddenly called for pen, ink, and paper, and, in spite of his wife's entreaties, began to write. For several days he wrote day and night with unabated ardor; but his feeble constitution was unable to support such efforts. One morning he fell down senseless, and was obliged to suspend his labor. Some days after, when his wife was endeavoring to divert him from his gloomy forebodings, he said to her, "I am certain that I am writing this requiem for myself—it will be my funeral-service!" and it was impossible to remove this impression from his mind. As he went on, he felt his strength diminish from day to day, and the score advanced slowly. At the month's end, the stranger again appeared, and asked for the requiem. Mozart said he had found himself unable to keep his word, and requested another month; adding that the work had interested him more than he had expected, and that he had extended it beyond his original design. "In that case," said the stranger, "it is but just to increase the remuneration: here are fifty ducats more." Mozart, in astonishment, begged to know who he was; but this information he declined to communicate, but said he should return in a month. Mozart called one of his servants, and ordered him to follow this extraordinary personage, and endeavor to find out who he was; but the servant returned without being able to trace him. Poor Mozart, in a state of mind at once enfeebled and excited, imagined that the stranger was some supernatural being, sent to warn him of his approaching end, and applied himself to the requiem with greater ardor than ever. During his labor, he was seized with frequent fainting fits, and reduced to the most extreme debility. On the day of his death, he desired the score to be brought to his bed. "Was I not right," he said to his afflicted wife, "when I assured you that it was for myself that I was composing this requiem?" At the end of the month the stranger returned, and found that the work was still unfinished; but its author was no more!

The "Requiem" was afterward completed by Sussmayer, a composer of considerable eminence, who was a friend of Mozart's family. In the year 1827, an edition of it was published by André, a respectable music-publisher at Offenbach, from whose preface it would appear (and his statement has since been corroborated) that the person by whom Mozart was employed to compose this work, was a Count Waldseck, a wealthy nobleman residing near the frontiers of Hungary, who, having lost his wife, took it into his head, not to obtain, but to pretend to compose a requiem to her memory; that he determined to procure a composition of which the reputed authorship would do him credit; and that his steward was Mozart's mysterious visitant. This appears the more probable, as it has since been ascertained that Count Waldseck, wishing to be considered a great composer, was in the habit of publishing with slight alterations the productions of eminent musicians as his own works, after bribing the real authors to silence by large sums of money.

Mozart died on the 5th of December, 1791, before he had completed his thirty-sixth year. With many weaknesses, his character appears to have been singularly interesting. He was "in wit a man, in simplicity a child." His health was always delicate; he was thin and pale, and appeared never to have reached his natural growth. His tenderness and regard for his wife were of the most touching character. He passionately loved her, and evinced his feelings by the most tender and delicate attentions. It was his practice to rise early in the morning; and when she was sick, he used to leave a note upon her pillow, folded like a physician's prescription, and containing some little affectionate message or advice.



ANTONIO CANOVA.

THIS celebrated Venetian sculptor, was born in 1757, at Possagno, a village situated at the foot of the Venetian Alps, and died in 1822, aged sixty-five years. His father and grandfather were sculptors of repute at that time. By the death of his father, Antonio became an orphan in the third year of his age. Deprived of his father, he was indebted for the rudiments of his art to his grandfather, Pasino, who adopted the excellent method of teaching him early the familiar use of the implements of sculpture, employing him on the works on which he was himself engaged.

Canova, by the recommendation of the patrician Giovanni Falier, who was embellishing his palace at Asolo, was placed under Torretto, who was one of the best of the Venetian sculptors, with the view of forwarding his progress, and further engaged that he should accompany the artist to Venice, which accordingly took place two years after. By the death of Torretto, Canova was

left without any guidance or restraint, having received from his master only the first instructions in his art. He had enjoyed, however, since his arrival at Venice, the protection of his excellent patron Falier, and found an immense course of knowledge and improvement in the gallery of plaster-casts of the commandatore Farsetti, comprising all the celebrated remains of antiquity.

Antonio was now placed with the sculptor Gio. Ferrari, Torretto's nephew, and worked with him on the statues that embellish the gardens of the Casa Tiepolo, at Carbonara. Canova did not continue in this school for more than one year, for, becoming strongly convinced of the necessity of a wide deviation from the rules of art which he saw practised, he boldly resolved to endeavor to explore those paths which, he thought, had been used by the ancients, and from which he beheld, with surprise and regret, the departure of his contemporaries. His proficiency even at this early age was considerable, as is attested by the two baskets of fruit which he sculptured in marble, in his fourteenth year, and which are yet to be seen on the first landing-place of the Farsetti palace, now the "Hotel della Gran Bretagna," at Venice.

His first effort was a group of Orpheus and Eurydice. The statue of Eurydice was completed in his sixteenth year. That of Orpheus was begun the following year. This composition, in soft stone, was publicly exhibited in Venice, on the occasion of the festival of the "Ascension," and first awakened the admiration and ambition of his countrymen. These two statues are now preserved in the Falier palace at Asolo. In the following year he repeated this subject in marble, in rather a smaller size, for the senator M. Antonio Grimani. The most elaborate composition which Canova executed previously to his departure from Venice, was the group of Dædalus and Icarus, in which he more signally evinced his daring abandonment of conventional modes, and his entire devotion to the guidance of nature. He likewise sculptured the statue of Esculapius, and one of the Marquis Poleni; the former being now in the villa Cromer at Monfelicce, the latter in the Prato at Padua.

The rapidity of his progress now prompted his illustrious patron to procure for him more adequate means and a loftier theatre for the exercise of his powers. Accordingly, in December, 1780, Canova entered for the first time that seat of the arts, little imagining that he was destined to attain there to the highest rank, and to establish rules of art, by his example, which would extend its influence to the remotest posterity.

On his first arrival at Rome, Canova had experienced the kindest reception from the Venetian ambassador, and had free access to his splendid mansion. This enlightened and accomplished nobleman soon became impressed with a high sense of the merits and power of the young sculptor, procured from Venice a cast in plaster of the group of Dædalus and Icarus, which he had executed in that city, for the purpose of exhibiting it to the artists and connoisseurs at Rome. On the occasion of the first production of this group, he was surrounded by the most distinguished artists and critics then residing at Rome, who contemplated the work with silent astonishment, not daring to censure what, although at variance with the style then followed, commanded their admiration, and revealed the brightest prospects. The embarrassment of the young artist was extreme, and he frequently spoke of it afterward as one of the most anxious moments of his life. From this state of anxiety he was, however, soon relieved, by the almost unanimous approbation of the spectators present.

From the moment of his arrival at Rome he had commenced a severe and profound study of the great models of ancient art, without, however, neglecting the fruits of his previous close observance of nature, the expression of which he always proposed to himself to make a distinguished quality in his works. He had a profound contempt for all conventional modes in the arts, and was led, even at that early age, by a correct taste rather than by instruction, to pro

fer, among the monuments of ancient art, those which were of the age of Phidias, in which the lofty conceptions of the artist are most closely united with truth of expression; a decision which has since been fully confirmed by the exhibition made to Europe by the British Museum of the first certain monuments of the arts of that era.

The Chevalier Zulian, the Venetian ambassador at Rome, now saw the importance of giving effective assistance to the developing powers of Canova; he, therefore, placed at his command a fine block of marble, to be devoted to a subject of his own choice, and to show the profit derived from his residence and studies at Rome. This was the first marble sculptured by Canova on those true principles by which he had proposed to himself to be guided in his works, a composition by which a new path was opened to all the productions of the imitative art. The subject which he chose was Theseus, conqueror of the Minotaur, and the work was conducted throughout in the palace of the Venetian ambassador. It was a highly interesting moment, when his excellent patron produced a cast of the head only of the Theseus to a party of the first artists and critics assembled in his house, without informing them whence it had been obtained; all concurred, however varying in other points, in pronouncing it to be of Grecian workmanship; several thought they had seen the marble from which it had been taken, not being able to recollect exactly where it was; but when the ambassador conducted them before the original and entire group, their surprise was indeed extreme, and they were forced to exclaim that by this work art had commenced a new career. On this occasion it may be said that Theseus was the conqueror, not only of the Minotaur, but of Envy also, forcing from rival artists the first homage of their admiration of Canova, who, at so early an age, had raised art to a higher degree of perfection than had been attained by any sculptor since its revival in Italy.

In 1783, by the friendship of Gio. Volpato, he received a commission to execute a monument for the celebrated Pope Ganganelli. He now gave up his study at Venice, which was finally closed in 1783, and, returning to Rome, applied himself wholly to this great work, which proved the means of raising his fame to the very highest rank. Previously to this undertaking, he had sculptured at Rome only his Theseus abovementioned, and a small statue of Apollo in the act of crowning himself, which he presented to the senator Abondino Rezzonico, one of his patrons, who died in 1782. To Volpato posterity are much indebted, who, with judicious confidence in the talents of the young sculptor, procured the confiding of this great work to him, and thus afforded an opportunity of making known his extraordinary powers to the world.

At the time this great work was in progress, he produced a youthful Psyche, and also modelled many other works, particularly those beautiful compositions in bas-relief, which first opened the eyes of modern sculptors. These began to appear about 1790, before any artist had ventured on anything in this style. They were all left in the clay models, except that of "Socrates parting with his Family," which was worked in marble with great care and accuracy.

The commencement of one composition was not delayed until the completion of another; for while his chisel was still employed on the tomb of Ganganelli, he was forming the clay model of that of Pope Rezzonico, which was placed in the church of St. Peter in 1792. During the few succeeding years he executed several statues and groups: Cupid and Psyche, variously represented; the group of Venus and Adonis; the Monument of Emo, now in the arsenal at Venice; the first statue of Hebe; and the first of the Penitent Magdalen. All these works were completed before the expiration of the eighteenth century; so that, in the course of twenty years, he had produced a greater number of works than many laborious artists have in the whole of a long existence. And it should be remembered that the practice which he himself subsequently intro-

duced for lessening the labor of the sculptor, by employing inferior workmen to reduce the block to the last stratum of the superficies, was not then in use. This adoption of mechanical aid he effected by forming his models of the exact size in which they were to be worked in marble; he always, however, applied himself the last hand to his works, giving to his marbles a softness and delicacy of contour, and a minute accuracy of expression, for which we should look in vain in the works of others of that time. Indeed, the great superiority of Canova is more particularly seen in these touches of art, to which no one can, perhaps, equally attain, who has not early acquired a familiar use of the chisel, but trust their fame to subordinate artists; the last minute and finishing touches are those which require the highest powers of the artist, and are the means of producing his noblest efforts.

The personal habits of Canova were, throughout his life, regular and moderate; he rose early, and immediately applied himself to his designing or modelling, and afterward to working in marble. He was always disposed to live abstemiously, as well from motives of health as of reflection. He seldom went from home, but passed his evenings in receiving his friends, with an extreme gentleness and urbanity of manners, but without the slightest approach to meanness or affectation.

It was the good fortune of Canova to escape unhurt the effects of the political events which then agitated Europe, and to be able to devote himself undisturbedly to his art. Pallas seems to have guarded him like Ulysses, by spreading around him a divine atmosphere, which shielded off the disasters, privations, and misfortunes of that era. Ambition and the desire of military glory characterized the great men of that period, and particularly the great conqueror; calling for monuments to record their actions to posterity, which object Canova was deemed most able to fulfil. Thus he was summoned to Paris in 1802, to model the portrait of Napoleon, from which he executed a colossal statue in marble, and then in bronze; the first by the sport of inconstant fortune, now being on the banks of the Thames; the latter in the academy at Milan. Canova was again called to Paris in 1810, to model a portrait of the empress Maria Louisa, whom he represented in a sitting posture, with the attributes of the goddess Concordia; now in the palace of Parma.

In the intervals of those journeys to Paris he made a second visit to Vienna, for the purpose of placing the sepulchre of the archduchess Christiana in the church of the Augustines in that city. This composition added greatly to his reputation there, and excited so strong a desire in the imperial court to possess his works, that he was induced to send his magnificent group of Theseus destroying a Centaur to Vienna rather than to Milan, for which city it was originally intended. The emperor Francis caused a temple, in the style of the purest Greek models, to be erected in the imperial gardens for its reception, and nothing was wanting for the completion of the design but the presence of Canova, to direct the placing of the group, when his death intervened.

In the early part of 1821, he took a journey to Possagno, to inspect the progress of the works there, and make many important alterations in his first designs, necessary in the adaptation of an edifice evidently formed on the united recollections of the Parthenon and the Pantheon, to the purpose of a Christian church. On his return to Rome he modelled the group of the Piety, one of the principal works which remain to be executed in marble. The first conceptions of this group were most felicitous, and the composition most rapid, suffering neither pause nor amendment in its progress, although, from the profound science it involves, the artist had evidently to overcome great difficulties in the expression of his ideas. When completed, however, it formed the wonder of all Rome, and of the strangers in that city. In the course of the winter he modelled a monument for the Marquis Berio, of Naples; also seven designs

for the metopes of the church at Passagno, the subjects taken from sacred history; and a colossal bust, the portrait of an intimate friend. With the advance of spring he completed, with a delightful finish, the group of Mars and Venus, for his Britannic majesty, and also completed the recumbent statues of the Magdalen and the Endymion, which he had executed for two distinguished English noblemen. Besides these important objects, he proceeded, at every leisure moment, with other works which he had in hand. The Sleeping Nymph; Dirce, Nurse of Bacchus; a repetition of the Nymph awaked at the sound of the Lyre; a Dansatrice; and various busts, and other minor works.

In the month of May he went to Naples to inspect the wax of his second colossal horse, preparatory to the fusion of the work, and returned to Rome with a tendency to disorder in his stomach, which was always badly affected by that climate. Having recovered himself in some degree, and completed the works abovementioned, he left that city, for the last time, in September, for Passagno, hoping to derive benefit from the journey, and from his native air, and arrived in that village on the seventeenth of the same month; but, as was usual with him, by a too hurried journey, and while he was still unable to bear the heat of the weather, which was in that year unusually great throughout Italy. Indeed, he was very ill on his arrival, without taking to his bed, expecting relief from his native air and the waters of Recodro; all was, however, unavailing. October 4th, he arrived at Venice, intending to stay there a few days. Continuing for several days to grow gradually worse, he performed the last offices of religion, and resigned himself to die, with the utmost constancy and serenity, uttering only short sentences to his attendants, and of a pious nature. Approaching to his end, he said to those who moistened his dying lips, "Good, very good—but it is in vain." His last words were, "Pure and lovely spirit." These he uttered several times just before he expired. He spoke no more; but his visage became, and continued for some time, highly radiant and expressive, as if his mind was absorbed in some sublime conception, creating powerful and unusual emotions in all around him. His death occurred on the 12th of October, 1822, as remarked at the commencement of this sketch, at the age of sixty-five.

The high esteem in which Canova, while living, was held throughout Europe, is one of the most honorable records of art and of requited genius; for, not only was he an object of admiration to Italy, and his own countrymen, but he had the whole of Europe, also, for his admirers. In England he was held in high estimation, and received during the short visit he paid to that country, after his last journey to Paris, the most generous and distinguished notice and attention.

The fascinating influence which the grace and beauty of Canova's female figures exercise on the senses, and the emotion produced by their voluptuous expression, have caused him to be called by many, the "sculptor of Venus and the Graces;" but, it surely will not be said by posterity, that the statues of the three pontiffs, in the colossal groups of Hercules and Licbas, and of Theseus and the Centaur, the Pugilists, Hector and Ajax, Washington, the colossal statue of Napoleon, the group of Piety, or the equestrian monuments of Naples, were imagined in the gardens of Cytherea. On these posterity will decide whether or not Canova possessed that profound acquaintance with nature and anatomy which is indispensable to the perfection of works of this description. It certainly will be allowed, that his science is not applied to a pompous display of himself, as it is one of the peculiar merits of this artist that he is always modestly concealed behind his works, aiming at justness of expression rather than an ostentatious display of his science in exaggerated forms; his works were therefore addressed to posterity, to whose unbiased judgment and discernment he appealed for his fame.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON, was born in 1757, on the island of Nevis, West Indies. His father, who was a native of England, having died, his mother removed to New York. At the age of sixteen, he became a student of Columbia college, his mother having emigrated to New York. He had not been in that institution more than a year, before he gave a brilliant manifestation of the powers of his mind in the discussion concerning the rights of the colonies. In support of these he published several essays, which were marked by such vigor and maturity of style, strength of argument, and wisdom and compass of views, that Mr. Jay, at that time in the meridian of life, was supposed at first, to be the author. When it had become necessary to unsheath the sword, the ardent spirit of young Hamilton would no longer allow him to remain in academic retirement; and before the age of nineteen, he entered the American army, with the rank of captain of artillery. In this capacity, he soon attracted the attention of the commander-in-chief, who appointed him his aid-de-camp, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. This occurred in 1777, when he was not more than twenty years of age. From this time, he continued the inseparable companion of Washington, during the war, and was always consulted by him, and frequently by other eminent public functionaries, on the most important occasions. He acted as his first aid-de-camp at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, and at the siege of Yorktown, he led, at his own request, the detachment that carried by assault one of the enemy's outworks, October, 14, 1781. In this affair, he displayed the most brilliant valor.

In December, 1780, he was married to a daughter of General Schuyler, and the following year commenced the study of the law, and his ready apprehension and solid judgment enabled him, with almost unprecedented rapidity, to prepare for and gain admission to the bar. In 1782, he was chosen by the legislature of New York a member of Congress, where he quickly acquired the greatest influence and distinction, and was always a member and sometimes chairman of those committees to which were confided such subjects as were deemed of vital interest to the nation. The reports which he prepared are remarkable for the correctness and power which characterize every effort of his pen. At the end of the session, he returned to the practice of his profession in the city of New York, and became eminent at the bar. In 1786, he was chosen a member of the legislature of his state, and was mainly instrumental in preventing a serious collision between Vermont and New York, in consequence of a dispute concerning territorial jurisdiction.

In 1787, he was appointed one of the delegates from New York to form a federal constitution, and his master-mind was constantly employed to bring the labors of the convention to a successful issue. After the adoption of the constitution by the convention, he associated himself with Mr. Madison and Mr. Jay, for the purpose of disposing the public to receive it with favor. The essays which they wrote with that design, addressed to the people of New York, during the years 1787 and 1788, are well known under the name of the *Federalist*, and contributed powerfully to produce the effect for which they were composed. The larger portion of them was written by Hamilton. In 1788, he was a member of the state convention of New York, which met to deliberate on the adoption of the federal constitution, and it was chiefly in consequence of his efforts that it was accepted. On the organization of the federal government, in 1789, he was appointed to the office of secretary of the treasury. This was a situation which required the exercise of all the great powers of his mind; for the public credit was, at that time, in the lowest state of depression; and, as no statistical account of the country had ever been attempted, its fiscal resources

were wholly unknown. But before Hamilton retired from the post, which he did after filling it during somewhat more than five years, he had raised the public credit to a height altogether unprecedented in the history of the country, and, by the admirable system of finance which he established, had acquired the reputation of one of the greatest financiers of the age. His official reports to Congress are considered as masterpieces, and the principles which he advocated in them still continue to exercise a great influence in the revenue department of the American government.

As secretary of the treasury, he was one of the cabinet counsellors of President Washington; and such was the confidence reposed by that great man in his integrity and ability, that he rarely ventured upon any executive act of moment without his concurrence. He was one of the principal advisers of the proclamation of neutrality issued by Washington in 1793, in consequence of an attempt made by the minister of France to cause the United States to take part with his country in the war then waging between it and England. This measure he defended in a series of essays, under the signature of *Pacificus*, which were successful in giving it popularity. In 1795, Hamilton resigned his office, and retired to private life, in order to be better able to support a numerous family by the practice of his profession. In 1798, however, when an invasion was apprehended from the French, and a provincial army had been called into the field, his public services were again required. President Adams had offered the chief command of the provisional army to Washington, who consented to accept it on condition that Hamilton should be chosen second in command, with the title of inspector-general. This was accordingly done; and, in a short time, he succeeded in bringing the organization and discipline of the army to a high degree of excellence, and on the death of Washington, in 1799, he succeeded to the chief command.

When the army was disbanded, after the cessation of hostilities between the United States and France, General Hamilton returned again to the bar, and continued to practise, with increased reputation, until 1804. In June of that year, he received a note from Colonel Burr—between whom and himself a political had become a personal enmity—requiring him, in offensive language, to acknowledge or disavow certain expressions derogatory to the latter. The tone of the note caused him to refuse to do either and a challenge was the consequence. The parties met at Hoboken, July 11th, and on the first fire, Hamilton fell, mortally wounded, on the same spot where his son a few years previously had fallen, in obedience to the same false principle of honor. He lingered until the afternoon of the following day, when he expired, at the age of forty-seven years. The sensation which this event produced throughout the United States has rarely been exceeded; men of all parties felt that the nation had been deprived of its greatest statesman by his untimely death.

The various state papers and writings of Hamilton are now in course of publication, in ten volumes under the patronage of the general government, with a biography in four volumes, by his son, John C. Hamilton, Esq. Though these writings must have been hastily penned, amid the multiplicity of active pursuits, we can discover in them no signs of immaturity or carelessness; on the contrary they are hardly excelled in originality, compactness, clearness, elegance, and purity of language.

The statue of Hamilton, a view of which is given on the opposite page, was chiselled from a solid block of white Italian marble, weighing nine tons; it was about two years in the hands of the artist, Mr. Ball Hughes, a resident of New York city, and weighed when completed one and a half tons. It was purely white, highly finished, and finely contrasted with the blue granite pedestal on which it stood, fourteen feet high. It adorned the centre of the great room in the Merchants' Exchange, where it was first exposed to view about the middle



of April, 1835. It presented the figure of Hamilton in majesty, yet repose; here was the broad and noble forehead, the majestic and thoughtful brow, the free, intelligent, commanding eye; you could almost perceive the temples throb, and mark every line of feature, and every expression of countenance. The Roman toga hung gracefully over the left shoulder; the right hand, resting upon an oblong, polished pedestal, held a scroll, which represented the act empowering the funding of the national debt, with the seal of government appended; the left arm hanging gracefully by his side. The whole was invested with dignity and grace, eloquence and power. This splendid work of art was erected by the merchants of New York, at a cost of six to eight thousand dollars. It was destroyed by the great fire which laid waste so large a portion of the city in December, 1835.

A monument is erected to his memory in Trinity churchyard, and is sufficiently illustrated by the engraving below. It bears on the north side the following inscription: "To the memory of ALEXANDER HAMILTON, the corporation of Trinity church have erected this monument, in testimony of their respect for the Patriot of incorruptible integrity, the Soldier of approved valor, the Statesman of consummate wisdom; whose talents and virtues will be admired by grateful posterity long after this marble shall have mouldered into dust. He died July 12th, 1804, aged forty-seven."



Tomb of Alexander Hamilton, Trinity Churchyard.

GENERAL LAFAYETTE.

GILBERT DE MOTTIER DE LAFAYETTE, the eminent son of America by adoption, and the compatriot of Washington in the war of the Revolution, was born September 6, 1757, at Chavagnac, in the present canton of Paulhoquet, and the arrondissement of Brionde, France. His father, an officer of distinction in the army of Louis XV., fell in battle two months previous to the birth of his son, the distinguished subject of the present sketch. His mother, a daughter of the marquis de Rivière, died when her son was only thirteen years of age, leaving him an orphan at that tender period when the child most needs parental guidance, in the full possession of large and valuable estates, and the absolute master of his own movements and destiny.

The early education of Lafayette had been conducted at home under the immediate eye of his mother. At twelve he was placed in the college du Plessis, at Paris, where his rank and wealth introduced him to all the gayeties and dissipations of fashionable society. Though of a disposition eminently social, and keenly alive to the pleasures and comforts of domestic life, he early showed a predilection for military glory, and an uncommon maturity in all the essential requisites of military success. At the age of fifteen he received a commission in the king's regiment of musketeers, an honor which was conferred only as a special mark of royal favor.

At the early age of sixteen, he was married to a daughter of the duke of Ayen. This lady was two years younger than himself, and was worthy in all respects to be the wife of Lafayette, and the mother of his children.

The struggle of the American colonies to obtain from the mother-country a recognition of their just rights, had not as yet attracted much notice in the old world (though in France, the natural enemy of England, its progress was watched with more especial interest), when the deep and solemn tones of the Declaration of Independence struck the ear of astonished Europe. It was shortly subsequent to the reception of the news of this event, in the latter part of 1776, and while his mind was agitated by negotiations to attach him to the person of the count de Provence (the second son of Louis XV., and afterward Louis XVIII.), that Lafayette's attention was first drawn to the conflict of liberty with oppression in America. He was, at that time, an officer in the French army, and stationed on duty at Mayence. The duke of Gloucester, brother to George III. of England, happening to pass that way, was complimented with a dinner by the commandant of the place. Lafayette was one of the invited guests. A principal topic of conversation at the table was the progress of the rebellion in America, and the stringent measures adopted and contemplated by the crown of England to crush it. Lafayette was an attentive listener, and an earnest inquirer, in order to understand the merits of the case. He saw that the cause was one of justice, of liberty, and of Heaven; and before he rose from the table, his resolution was taken: he determined to abandon his home and country, the endearments of family and friends, and all the luxuries and pleasures which his ample fortune placed at his disposal, embark for America, and proffer his services to the people who were thus nobly struggling for freedom. He returned to Paris to prepare himself for the enterprise, where he met with much opposition from the few friends to whom he disclosed his intentions. While absent in England, to arrange some business matters, his designs became public, and on his return he was forbidden by the government to depart, and ordered to Marseilles. Under pretence of obeying, he quitted Paris; and when a few leagues from the metropolis, he disguised himself as a courier, changed his course for Bordeaux, and, on the 26th of April, 1777, in a vessel



Portrait of General Lafayette.

which he had purchased and fitted out at his own expense, set sail from Passage for the theatre of his future glory. He arrived at Charleston, South Carolina, after a tedious voyage, on the 15th of June.

The numerous applications of foreigners to Congress for commissions in the army, caused the first overture of this young nobleman to be rejected by that body; but when, in a letter addressed to John Hancock, he assured them he desired to serve as a volunteer, *and without pay*, his proposition was so extraordinary, that his wish was acceded to. As soon as Washington arrived in Philadelphia, Lafayette was introduced to him; and during the interview, the accomplishments, the enthusiasm, and evident patriotism of Lafayette, made a very favorable impression upon the commander-in-chief. From this time a friendship of the most intimate and enduring character existed between these truly great men—a friendship based upon a sympathy of tastes, habits, and opinions, and cemented by sincere esteem and affection.

Lafayette was appointed by Congress, July 31, a major-general in the army, and was invited by Washington to become a member of his military family, which position he maintained during the war. His first military service was in the battle of Brandywine, where he was severely wounded in the leg, and disabled from active service for two months. He would, no doubt, have been made prisoner, had not his aid-de-camp, M. Gemat, put him upon his horse, and he thus escaped.

In 1778, Lafayette was employed in Pennsylvania and Rhode Island, and, after receiving the thanks of the country for his important services, embarked at Boston, in January, 1779, for France, where it was thought that he could assist the cause more effectually for a time. The treaty concluded between France and America, about the same period, was, by his personal exertions, made effective in our favor; and he returned to America, with the intelligence that a French force would soon be sent to this country. Immediately on his arrival, he entered the service, and received the command of a body of infantry of about two thousand men, which he clothed and equipped, in part, at his own expense. His forced march to Virginia, in December, 1780, raising two thousand guineas at Baltimore, on his own credit, to supply the wants of his troops; his rescue of Richmond; his long trial of generalship with Cornwallis, who boasted that "the boy could not escape him;" the siege of Yorktown, and the storming of the redoubt, are proofs of his devotion to the cause of American independence.

His fidelity to Washington was tested, when, in 1778, the conspiracy known as "Conway's cabal" was formed for the purpose of weakening the confidence of the people in the commander-in-chief, and to place the supreme command in other hands. Attempts were made through flattery, and persuasion, and promised honors, to link Lafayette with them, but it proved a signal failure. The firmness with which the young patriot clung to Washington during this trial of the young hero's sensitive heart, shamed the secret enemies and jealous rivals of that great man, and was mainly instrumental in dissolving the cabal.

Desirous of serving the cause at home, he again returned to France for that purpose. Congress, which had already acknowledged his merits on former occasions, now passed new resolutions, November 23, 1781, in which, besides the usual marks of approbation, they desire the American ministers to confer with him in their negotiations. In France, a brilliant reputation had preceded him, and he was received with the highest marks of public admiration. He urged upon the French government the necessity of assisting with a powerful force in America, and succeeded in obtaining orders to this effect. On his arrival in Cadiz, he found forty-nine ships, with twenty thousand men, ready to follow him to America, had not peace rendered it unnecessary. A letter from him communicated the first intelligence of that event to Congress. He



Departure of Lafayette for France, in 1784.

received pressing invitations, however, to revisit the country. Washington, in particular, urged it strongly; and, for the third time, Lafayette landed in the United States, August 4, 1784. After passing a few days at Mount Vernon, he visited Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Boston, &c., and was everywhere received with the greatest enthusiasm and delight. Previous to his return to France, Congress appointed a deputation, consisting of one member from each state, "to take leave of him on behalf of the country, and assure him that these United States regard him with particular affection, and will not cease to feel an interest in whatever may concern his honor and prosperity." He embarked at New York, December 21, 1784.

After his return, Lafayette was engaged in endeavoring to mitigate the condition of the protestants in France, and to effect the abolition of slavery. In the assembly of the notables, in 1787, he proposed the suppression of *lettres de cachet*, and of the stateprisons, the emancipation of the protestants, and the convocation of the representatives of the nation. When asked by the count d'Artois (since Charles X.) if he demanded the states-general—"Yes," was his reply, "and something better." Being elected a member of the states-general, which took the name of "National Assembly" (1789), he proposed a declaration of rights, and the decree providing for the responsibility of the officers of the crown. Two days after the attack on the Bastille, he was appointed (July 15) commander-in-chief of the national guards of Paris. The court and national assembly were still at Versailles, and the populace of Paris, irritated at this, had already adopted, in sign of opposition, a blue-and-red cockade (being the colors of the city of Paris). July 26, Lafayette added to this cockade the white of the royal arms, declaring at the same time that the tri-color should go round the world. On the march of the populace to Versailles (October 5th and 6th), the national guards clamored to be led thither. Lafayette refused to comply with their demand, until, having received orders in the afternoon, he set off, and arrived at ten o'clock, after having been on horseback from before daylight.

He requested that the interior posts of the château might be committed to him; but this request was refused, and the outer posts only were intrusted to the national guards. This was the night on which the assassins murdered two of the queen's guards, and were proceeding to further acts of violence, when Lafayette, at the head of the national troops, put an end to the disorder, and saved the lives of the royal family. In the morning, he accompanied them to Paris.

On the establishment of the jacobin club at Paris, Lafayette organized (with Bailly, then mayor of Paris) the opposing club of Feuillans. January 20, 1790, he supported the motion for the abolition of titles of nobility, from which period he renounced his own, and never afterward resumed it. The constitution of a representative monarchy, which was the object of his wishes, was now proposed, and July 13, 1790, was appointed for its acceptance by the king and the nation, and, in the name of four millions of national guards, Lafayette swore fidelity to the constitution. Declining the dangerous power of constable of France, or generalissimo of the national guards of the kingdom, after having organized the national militia, and defended the king from the popular violence, he resigned all command, and retired to his estates.

The first coalition against France (in 1792) soon called Lafayette from his retirement. Being appointed one of the three major-generals in command of the French armies, he defeated the enemy at Philippeville, Maubeuge, and Florennes, when his career of success was interrupted by the domestic factions of his country. Lafayette openly denounced the terrible jacobins, in his letter of June 16, in which he declared that the enemies of the revolution, under the mask of popular leaders, were endeavoring to stifle liberty under the excesses of licentiousness. On the 20th of June, he appeared at the bar of the assembly, to vindicate his conduct, and demand the punishment of the guilty authors of the violence. But the party of the "Mountain" had already overthrown the constitution, and nothing could be effected. Lafayette then offered to conduct the king and his family to Compiègne. This proffer being declined, he returned to the army, which he endeavored to rally round the constitution. June 30, he was burnt in effigy at the Palais-Royale, and on the 5th of August was accused of treason before the assembly. Still he declared himself openly against the proceedings of August 10; but, finding himself unsupported by his soldiers, he determined to leave the country, and take refuge in some neutral ground. Having been captured by an Austrian patrol, he was delivered to the Prussians, by whom he was again transferred to Austria. He was carried with great secrecy to Olmütz, where he was subjected to every privation and suffering, and cut off from all communication with his friends, who were not even able to discover the place of his confinement until late in 1794. An unsuccessful attempt was made to deliver him from prison by Dr. Bollman, a German, and Mr. Huger (of Charleston, South Carolina). His wife and daughter, however, succeeded in obtaining admission to him, and remained with him nearly two years, until his release. Washington had written directly to the emperor of Austria on his behalf, without effect; but, after the memorable campaign of Bonaparte in Italy, in 1796, the French government required that the prisoners at Olmütz should be released, which was done August 25, 1797, after a negotiation that lasted three months.

Refusing to take any part in the revolutions of the 18th Fructidor, or of the 18th Brumaire, Lafayette returned to his estate at La Grange; and, declining the dignity of senator, offered him by Bonaparte, he gave his vote against the consulate for life, and, taking no further part in public affairs, devoted himself to agricultural pursuits. On the restoration of the Bourbons, in 1814, he perceived that their principles of government were not such as France required, and he did not therefore leave his retirement.

The 20th of March, 1815, again saw Napoleon on the imperial throne, and

endeavoring to conciliate the nation by the profession of liberal principles. Lafayette refused, though urged through the mediation of Joseph, to see him; protested against the *acte additionnel* of April 22; declined the peerage offered him by the emperor, but accepted the place of representative, to which the votes of his fellow-citizens called him. He first met Napoleon at the opening of the chambers: the emperor received him with great marks of kindness, to which, however, he did not respond; but, although he would take no part in the projects of Napoleon, he gave his vote for all necessary supplies, on the ground that France was invaded, and that it was the duty of all Frenchmen to defend their country.

On the 21st of June, Napoleon returned from Waterloo, and it was understood that it was determined to dissolve the house of representatives, and establish a dictatorship. Two of the emperor's councillors informed Lafayette that, in two hours, the representative body would cease to exist. Immediately on the opening of the session, he ascended the tribune, and addressed the house as follows: "When, for the first time, after an interval of many years, I raise a voice which all the old friends of liberty will still recognise, it is to speak of the dangers of the country, which you only can save. This, then, is the moment for us to rally round the old tri-colored standard, the standard of '89, of liberty, of equality, of public order, which we have now to defend against foreign violence and domestic usurpation." He then moved that the house declare itself in permanent session, and all attempts to dissolve it high-treason; that whoever should make such an attempt should be considered a traitor to the country, &c. In the evening, Napoleon sent his brother Lucien to the house, to make one more effort in his favor. Lucien, in a strain of impassioned eloquence, conjured the house not to compromise the honor of the French nation by inconstancy to the emperor. At these words, Lafayette rose in his place, and, addressing himself directly to the orator, exclaimed: "Who dares accuse the French nation of inconstancy to the emperor? Through the sands of Egypt, and the wastes of Russia, over fifty fields of battle, this nation has followed him devotedly; and it is for this that we now mourn the blood of three millions of Frenchmen!" This appeal had such an effect on the assembly, that Lucien resumed his seat without finishing his discourse. A deputation of five members from each house was then appointed to deliberate in committee with the council of ministers. Of this deputation General Lafayette was a member, and he moved that a committee should be sent to the emperor to demand his abdication. The arch-chancellor refused to put the motion; but the emperor sent in his abdication the next morning (June 22). A provisional government was formed, and Lafayette was sent to demand a suspension of hostilities of the allies, which was refused. On his return, he found Paris in possession of the enemy; and, a few days after (July 8), the doors of the representatives' chamber were closed, and guarded by Prussian troops. Lafayette conducted a number of the members to the house of Lanjuinais, the president, where they drew up a protest against this act of violence, and quietly separated.

Lafayette now retired once more to La Grange, where he remained until 1818, when he was chosen a member of the chamber of deputies. Here he continued to support his constitutional principles, by opposing the laws of exception, the establishment of the censorship of the press, the suspension of personal liberty, &c., and by advocating the cause of public instruction, the organization of a national militia, and the inviolability of the charter.

On the 15th of August, 1824, Lafayette landed at New York, on a visit to the United States, upon the invitation of President Monroe, and was received in every part of the country with the warmest expressions of delight and enthusiasm. He was proclaimed, by the popular voice, "the guest of the nation," and his presence was everywhere the signal for festivals and rejoicings. He

passed through the twenty-four states of the Union in a sort of triumphal procession, in which all parties joined to forget their dissensions—in which the veterans of the war renewed their youth, and the young were carried back to the doings and sufferings of their fathers. Congress made him a donation of two hundred thousand dollars, and a township of land, “in consideration of his important services and expenditures during the American Revolution.” Having celebrated, at Bunker hill, the anniversary of the first conflict of the Revolution, and at Yorktown that of its closing scene, in which he himself had borne so conspicuous a part, and taken leave of the four ex-presidents of the United States, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, he received the farewell of the president (John Quincy Adams), in the name of the nation, and sailed from Washington city, in a frigate named, in compliment to him, the *Brandywine*, September 7, 1825, and arrived at Havre on the 2d of October, where he was greeted with a cordial welcome, and with demonstrations of affection, confidence, and respect, which gave serious alarm to those who believed that all such homage should be reserved for royalty. At Rouen the people were disposed to show him the same respect; and having peaceably assembled to make some demonstration of regard for his character, were fired upon and dispersed by a detachment of the royal guard.

In November, 1827, the chamber of deputies was dissolved. Lafayette was again returned a member by the new elections. During the summer of 1829, he made a visit to his relatives in the departments of Auvergne and Isère. His journey was everywhere interrupted by demonstrations of popular regard. From city, town, and village, the people came out to welcome and to honor him—a striking contrast to the conduct of the ministers toward him, and an alarming symptom to the despotic government.

During the revolution of July, 1830, Lafayette was appointed general-in-chief of the national guards of Paris; and, though not personally engaged in the fight, his activity and name were of the greatest service. The revolution was successful. The deposed king, Charles X., after an abortive effort to regain his crown by force, sent in a formal abdication, and passed unmolested to England, muttering, as he went, “That old republican, Lafayette, has been the prime mover of all this mischief!”

When the national guards were established throughout France, on the termination of the struggle, Lafayette was appointed commander-in-chief, and his activity and influence in this position were of the utmost service, particularly in his successful efforts to maintain order during the trial of the ex-ministers of Charles X. When, on the 4th of October, 1830, Belgium proclaimed its independence of Holland, the crown was proffered to Lafayette, which he unhesitatingly declined, adding that the only crown he could accept was a civic wreath.

On the adoption of the new constitution, and the accession of Louis Philippe (who was mainly indebted to Lafayette for the quiet acquiescence of the people in the assumption of the regal sceptre by a Bourbon), his influence with the king and his cabinet was great; but his principles soon proved too decidedly republican to please a government already verging toward the revival of that very despotism which the revolution of July had thrown off, and on the 24th of December he sent in his resignation as commander-in-chief of the national guards. He remained, however, at his post in the chamber of deputies.

Though not in favor at court, and looked upon by the king as a troublesome Mentor, Lafayette lost nothing of the confidence and affection of the people. They looked up to him with filial reverence and admiration. To the close of his mortal career, wherever he appeared he was greeted as the patriarch of freedom. But his end drew nigh. Overcome by fatigue and exposure, consequent upon attending the funeral of a young friend, February 2, 1834, he was

violently attacked with ischury, to which he was predisposed : and though he partially recovered, so as to be able to ride out and take the air, exposure to a sudden thunder-storm brought on a relapse, which terminated his earthly existence on the morning of the 20th of May, 1834, in the seventy-seventh year of his age.

The tidings of his death threw a deep gloom over the gay city, which was felt in every part of France. The nation mourned. The people wept. All ranks, all parties, strove together to do reverence to the illustrious dead. His remains were conveyed to the tomb with the highest civil and military honors, attended not only by the people in a body, and the national guard, but by the high officers of the crown, the legislative chambers, the academies, the schools, the representatives of foreign governments, resident strangers, all, enemies as well as friends, anxious to testify their respect for pre-eminent virtue. The bells of Paris tolled a mournful requiem. The bells of all France, of Belgium of Switzerland, of Italy, of Poland, of England, of Ireland, of Scotland, sent back an answering tone of national and individual grief ; while, from across the broad Atlantic, the solemn wail of fifteen millions of bereaved freemen rose on the breeze, like the mourning of the Israelites at Abel-Mizraim. In all lands, the language of eulogy was exhausted in attempts to portray his worth, and estimate the greatness of the world's loss in his death. The most eminent statesmen, the most eloquent orators of the age, made his character the theme of their praises.

In person, Lafayette was tall, well-proportioned, and strongly built. His head was large, his face oval, with regular features, and an ample forehead. His eyes, of a grayish blue, were large, prominent, expressive, and full of kindness. His mouth, to which a smile seemed natural, had at the same time an expression of firmness. His complexion was clear. The whole expression of his countenance exhibited a blending of benevolence and frankness—a benevolence that knew no bounds, a frankness that knew no disguise. Notwithstanding his life of toil, exposure, and suffering, and the scenes of turbulence and anxiety he had passed through, his temperament was so equable, his disposition so calm and gentle, that, at the age of seventy-seven, his face was not marked by a single furrow. His deportment was noble and dignified, his manners easy, graceful, and winning, his voice agreeable and of great capacity, his style of conversation natural and unrestrained. His habits were simple and regular ; in his diet he was abstemious and temperate, eating moderately, and seldom drinking anything but water.

Lafayette was ambitious ; but his ambition had no stain of selfishness. Regencies, dictatorships, crowns, were repeatedly urged upon his acceptance ; but he sought only the welfare of mankind—he desired the good of the whole.

His benevolence was unbounded. Lagrange, with the district in which it stood, was witness to the largest exhibitions of this noble trait. In all that region he was known and familiarly spoken of as “the people's friend.”

The late venerable John Quincy Adams, in his eulogy of Lafayette, said : “Pronounce him one of the first men of the age, and you have not yet done him justice. Try him by that test to which he sought in vain to stimulate the vulgar and selfish spirit of Napoleon ; class him among the men who, to compare and seat themselves, must take in the compass of all ages ; turn back your eyes upon the records of all time ; summon, from the creation of the world to this day, the mighty dead of every age and clime ; and where, among the race of merely mortal men, shall one be found, who, as a benefactor of his kind, shall claim to take precedence of Lafayette ?” To which may be added the testimony of Charles James Fox : “A noble character, which will flourish in the annals of the world, and live in the veneration of posterity, when kings and the crowns they wear will be no more regarded than the dust to which they must return !”

LORD NELSON.

HORATIO NELSON, viscount, duke of Bronte, &c., England's greatest naval hero, was the fourth son of the Rev. Edmund Nelson, rector of Burnham Thorpe, in the county of Norfolk (England), and born there, September 29, 1758. He was educated first at Norwich, and next at North Walsham; but in his twelfth year he became a midshipman under his uncle, Captain Suckling, of the *Raisonable*. Soon after this he sailed to the West Indies in a merchant-ship, and on his return was admitted on board the *Carcass*, one of the vessels sent on an expedition to the North Pole, under the orders of Captain Phipps. He went next to the East Indies. In 1777 he obtained the rank of lieutenant, and in 1779 that of post-captain, when he was appointed to the command of the *Hichinbroke*, in which ship he sailed to the West Indies, where he distinguished himself in an enterprise on the Spanish main.

After the peace of 1783, Nelson commanded the *Boreas* frigate, stationed for the protection of trade at the Leeward islands, and while there he married Mrs. Nesbit, the widow of a physician. At the commencement of the war with France, he was nominated to the *Agamemnon* of sixty-four guns, on board of which he sailed to the Mediterranean, and was at the taking of Toulon. He was also present at the siege of Bastia, where he served at the batteries with a body of seamen, as he afterward did at Calvi; and while employed before that place he lost an eye. While on that station his daring intrepidity and unceasing activity were such, that his name was dreaded throughout the shores of the Mediterranean. He was with Admiral Hotham in the action with the French fleet, March 15, 1795; and the same year he took the island of Elba.

In 1796, Nelson was appointed commodore on board *La Minerve*, in which frigate he captured *La Sabine*, a forty-gun ship. Soon after this he descried the Spanish fleet, and steered with the intelligence to Sir John Jervis, off St. Vincent. He had scarcely communicated the news, and shifted his flag on board the *Captain* of seventy-four guns, when the enemy hove in sight. A close action ensued, which terminated in a complete victory on the side of the British, who were inferior in numbers. On this occasion Commodore Nelson attacked the *Santissima Trinidad* of one hundred and thirty-six guns; he afterward boarded and took the *San Nicholas* of eighty guns, whence he proceeded in the same manner to the *San Joseph* of one hundred and twelve guns, both of which surrendered to him. For his share in this glorious victory, the commodore was honored with the order of the Bath; and having soon afterward hoisted his flag as rear admiral of the blue, he was appointed to command the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz. He there made a bold but unsuccessful attempt to bombard the city, heading his men himself. The next exploit in which he was engaged was an attempt to take possession of *Teneriffe*, which design also failed, and Nelson lost his right arm by a cannon-shot, and escaped with his life by the devotion of his step-son, Captain Nesbit, who carried him off on his back to a boat, after lying senseless and exhausted for several hours upon the ground.

In 1798, Nelson rejoined Earl St. Vincent, who sent him up the Mediterranean, to watch the progress of the armament at Toulon, destined for the conveyance of Bonaparte and his army to Egypt. Notwithstanding the strictest vigilance, this fleet found means to escape, but was followed by Nelson, and, after various disappointments, traced to the bay of Aboukir. Here he commenced an immediate attack, and by a manœuvre of equal boldness and ability, sailed between the enemy and the land, though exposed to a double fire. The result was a victory so glorious and decisive, that all the French vessels, with

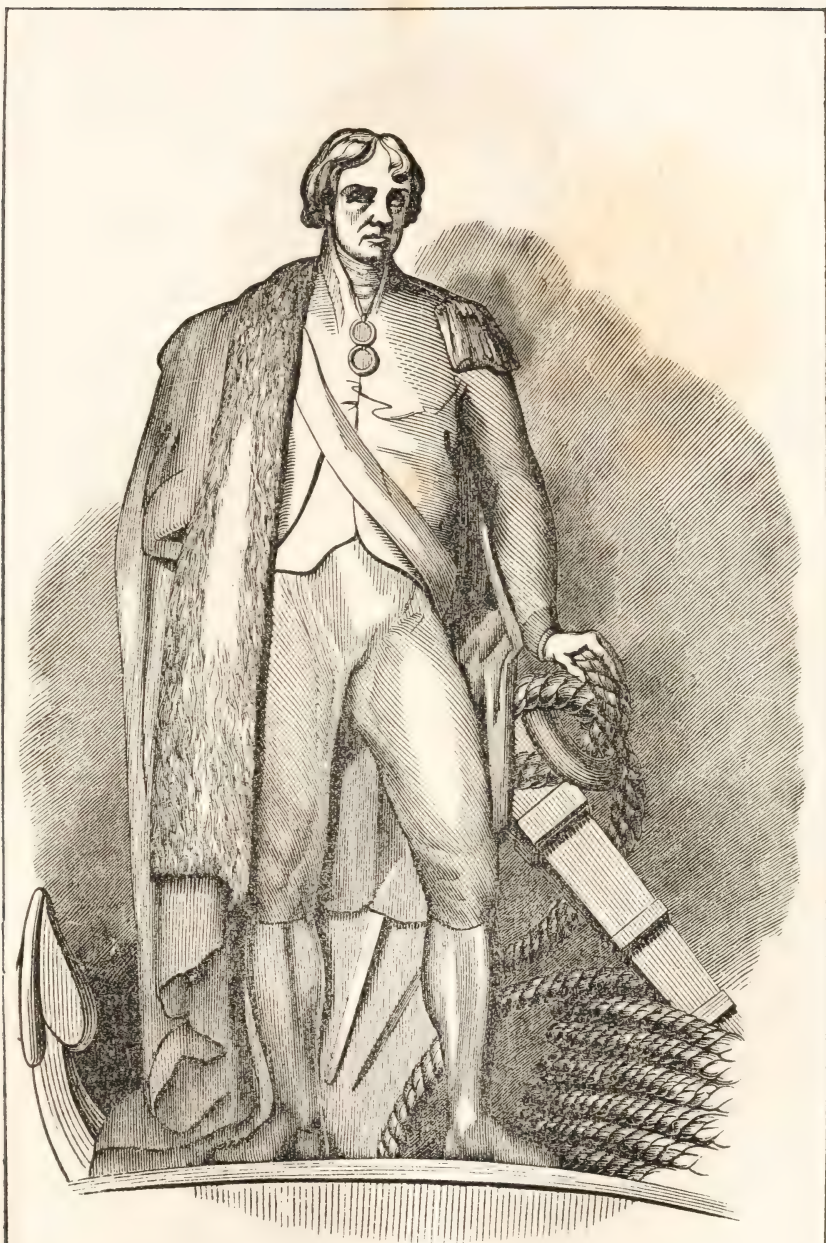
the exception of two men-of-war and two frigates, were taken or destroyed. This achievement was rewarded with the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile, and an additional pension of two thousand pounds sterling, besides the estate and dukedom of Bronte in Sicily, and high honors conferred by the Turkish sultan. Soon after this he sailed for Sicily, and thence to Naples, where he quelled a rebellion and restored the king. Having performed these and other important services, Lord Nelson returned to England, and was received with enthusiastic joy.

A confederacy of the northern powers having alarmed the British government, Admiral Nelson was employed to dissolve it. A fleet was fitted out in 1801, the command of which was given to Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, assisted by Nelson. On their arrival off the Cattegat, and being refused a passage, Lord Nelson offered his services for conducting the attack on the Danish force, which was stationed to oppose an entrance. This being accepted, he shifted his flag to the *Elephant*, and passed the sound with little loss. On the 2d of April the action commenced at ten o'clock, and after a sharp conflict seventeen sail of the Danes were sunk, burnt, or taken. A negotiation was then entered into between his lordship and the crown prince; in consequence of which the admiral went ashore, and an armistice was settled. He next obtained from the Swedish government an order for taking off the embargo on English ships in the Baltic. Having accomplished these great objects, he returned to England, and was created a viscount.

In August, 1801, Nelson bombarded the French flotilla of gun-boats at Boulogne, but without any material effect. A treaty suddenly taking place, his lordship retired to his seat at Merton, in Surrey; but hostilities recommencing, he sailed for the Mediterranean, and in March, 1803, took the command of that station on board the *Victory*. Notwithstanding all his vigilance, the French fleet escaped from Toulon, and was joined by that of Cadiz; of which being apprized, he pursued them to the West Indies with a far inferior force. The combined squadrons, however, struck with terror, returned without effecting anything; and after a partial action with Sir Robert Calder, off Ferrol, re-entered Cadiz.

Admiral Nelson returned to England, but soon set sail to join his fleet off Cadiz. The French under Admiral Villeneuve, and the Spaniards under Gravina, ventured out with a number of troops on board, October 19, 1805; and on the 21st, about noon, the action began off Cape Trafalgar. Lord Nelson ordered his ship the *Victory*, to be carried alongside his old antagonist, the *San-tissima Trinidad*, where he was exposed to a severe fire of musketry; and not taking the precaution to cover his coat, which was decorated with his star and other badges of distinction, he became an object for the riflemen placed purposely in the tops of the French ship *Bucentaur*, which lay on his quarter. In the middle of the engagement, a musket-ball struck him on the left shoulder, and passing through the spine, lodged in the muscles of his back. He lived just long enough to be acquainted with the number of ships that he had captured, and his last words were, "I have done my duty—I praise God for it!" The mighty spirit of Nelson was epitomized in the signal which he hoisted on commencing this action: "England expects that every man will do his duty!" His remains were taken to England, and buried with unprecedented honors in St Paul's cathedral, where a monument has been erected to his memory.

It is to be lamented that the private character of this gallant officer was deeply stained by his attachment to the wife of Sir William Hamilton, the English ambassador at Naples, which not only separated him from his wife, who ill deserved this desertion, but hurried him on one occasion, in order to gratify the heartless and profligate Lady Hamilton, to an act of cruelty foreign to his real nature—the hanging of Admiral Caraccioli from the yard-arm of his ship.



Statue of Lord Nelson, St. Paul's, London.



NOAH WEBSTER.

NOAH WEBSTER, the eminent lexicographer was born at Hartford, Connecticut, October 16, 1758. His father was a farmer, and a justice of the peace. In 1774, he entered Yale college, and graduated in 1778. On returning home from the commencement, when he graduated, his father gave him an eight-dollar bill of the continental currency, then worth only fifty cents on a dollar, and told him that thenceforth he must rely on his own exertions for support. This was an unpropitious period for a young man to enter upon the duties of life, with no means but his own labor to sustain him. The country was impoverished by war; there was no prospect of peace; the uncertainty of the issue of the great contest for liberty was felt by even the most sanguine; it was a dark hour in our country's history; yet amid all these trying circumstances, of which it is impossible to form any just conception at the present day, young Webster was left at the age of twenty years, with only four dollars in his pocket, to mark out his own path to usefulness, honor, and fortune. As a means of immediate support, he commenced teaching in Hartford, Connecticut, and resided in the family of Mr. Ellsworth. a afterward chief-justice of the United States noticed

on another page. He improved his leisure time in studying law, without the aid of an instructor, and at the end of two years was admitted to practice at the bar. But such was the state of the country at that time, that no encouragement offered for engaging in his profession, and he went to Goshen, Orange county, New York, where he resumed teaching, in a classical school.

It was while thus engaged that Mr. Webster commenced the preparation of school-books; and to him is due the credit of the first spelling-book, English grammar, and reading book, that were published in the United States. This employment seemed to give direction to the whole of his future life. So general became the use of his spelling-book, that his family was supported, during the twenty years in which he was employed in compiling his American Dictionary, by a premium of less than one cent per copy. About thirty millions of copies of this book have been sold, including the different forms which it has assumed under the revision of the author.

In 1783, Mr. Webster returned to Hartford. At this period the country was agitated by discord and dissensions, and by the use of his pen he did more to vindicate the acts of Congress, and to allay the popular discontent, than any other man. The dangers of the war were now over, but the old confederation was found to be inadequate to the necessities of the people. He therefore published a pamphlet in the winter of 1784-'5, entitled "Sketches of American Policy." In this he urged the necessity of a new system of government for the United States. During the summer of 1785, he made a journey south, to petition the state legislatures for the enactment of a law that should secure to authors an exclusive right to the publication of their writings. Thus the public attention was called to the subject, and a general copyright law was enacted by Congress soon after the formation of our government.

In 1788, Mr. Webster published a periodical in New York, called the "*American Magazine*;" but it failed of success, and was continued only one year. During the succeeding year he settled himself at Hartford in the practice of the law. In the autumn of the same year he married the daughter of William Greenleaf, Esq., of Boston. By the solicitation of friends he was induced to relinquish his profession, and to aid in the support of Washington's administration during the French revolution. Accordingly he removed to New York in 1793, and commenced a daily paper, with the title of "*The Minerva*," and afterward a semi-weekly, called "*The Herald*." These names were subsequently changed to those of "*Commercial Advertiser*," and "*New York Spectator*." This was the first example of a paper for the country being made up from the columns of a daily without re-setting the types—a practice now very common.

In 1807, Mr. Webster published "*A Philosophical and Practical Grammar of the English Language*." This was a work highly original, and the result of many years of diligent investigation. After publishing the grammar, he entered during the same year, upon the great work of his life—that of preparing a new and complete dictionary of the English language. Several years were now spent in collecting words which had not been introduced into the English dictionaries; in discriminating with exactness the various senses of all the words in our language, and adding those significations which they had recently received. Some estimate may be formed of the great labor bestowed on this part of the work from the fact that the first edition of "*The American Dictionary of the English Language*" contained twelve thousand new words, and between thirty and forty thousand definitions not found in any previous work. The number has since been swelled to about *thirty thousand* new words.

In 1812, Mr. Webster removed to Amherst, Mass., where he entered with his characteristic ardor into the literary and social interests of the place; he represented the town at different times in the legislature, as he had previously

New Haven in the general assembly of Connecticut. He returned to New Haven in 1822, and in 1823, received the degree of I.L. D. from Yale college.

In 1824, having nearly completed his dictionary, he made a voyage to Europe, for the purpose of perfecting his work by consulting literary men abroad, and examining some standard authors to which he could not gain access in this country. After visiting Paris he went to the university of Cambridge, England, where he had access to all the public libraries, and there he finished *THE AMERICAN DICTIONARY*, having spent the labor of *twenty years* upon it. The first edition of twenty-five hundred copies of this great work was printed in this country at the close of the year 1828. This was soon followed by an edition of three thousand copies in England. Having now arrived at the age of seventy years, Mr. Webster considered his great literary labors brought nearly to a close. However, in 1840, he published a second edition of his dictionary, consisting of three thousand copies, in two volumes, royal octavo. The improvements consisted chiefly in the addition of several thousand words to the vocabulary, and the correcting of definitions.

Dr. Webster published some of his writings and observations in 1843, but the closing act of his life was the revision of the appendix to his Dictionary, and the addition of some hundreds of words. His hand rested in its last labors on the work which he had commenced thirty-six years before. In the midst of his own family, at New Haven, Connecticut, he gently sank to rest on the 28th day of May, 1843, in the eighty-fifth year of his age. He went down the declivity of life full of years and honors, having administered more to education and literature than any other man on the records of history.

The remains of Noah Webster now rest in the quiet cemetery at New Haven, beneath a monument of Quincy granite, rising some twelve or fifteen feet high. The only inscription to be found on it is simply the word "WEBSTER," cut on the square block which constitutes the base of the monument. What inscription more appropriate? No name, save that of the FATHER of HIS COUNTRY, is more extensively and familiarly known than NOAH WEBSTER. His fame is as wide as the English language. From the rudest log school-house in the western wilds, to the venerable halls of the oldest college in America, his name is as familiar as household words.

Noah Webster had seven children; one son, and six daughters. His widow died in June, 1847. In person, Noah Webster was tall, and somewhat siender. He was remarkably erect through life, and moved, even in his advanced years, with a light and elastic step.

"*THE AMERICAN DICTIONARY*" is regarded, independent of its merits as a standard expositor of the English language, as the most extraordinary monument of labor and learning ever reared by the industry and self-sacrificing devotion of any man in the wide history of literature. Of the talents and achievements, of the name and fame, of Noah Webster every American may be proud. Like Washington, Franklin, and Fulton, though his birth and achievements were here, his name belongs not to America only, but to all mankind. Achievements such as theirs, like the light of the sun, can not be cramped within parallels of latitude and longitude, but belong to the whole world—to the entire brotherhood of the human race.

Noah Webster will long be remembered, as the youthful soldier, who was ready, if need be, to pour out his blood and his life together for the land of his birth; as the thoughtful statesman, who early devised a scheme for uniting the states under a constitution, such as the country now enjoys; as the grateful, citizen, who gallantly sprang to the defence of Washington, when factious men rose up against him; as the laborious lexicographer, who throws a strong and steady light upon the English language; as the Christian moralist, "who taught millions to read, but not one to sin."



FRIEDRICH SCHILLER.

To portray a life so eventful, or to analyze a genius so profound and so expansive as that of the German poet, Schiller is a task which none but a ripe scholar and true poet should perform. It is a task, the faithful accomplishment of which should occupy the space of a volume, and hence all that we shall attempt in this sketch, will be a mere outline delineation of the events of his life, without attempting to portray the features of his character or to express an opinion concerning his various and splendid productions.

FRIEDRICH SCHILLER was born at Marbach, a small town of Würtemberg, in Germany, on the 10th of November, 1759. His father was a surgeon in the army, and at the time of Friedrich's birth, was absent on a campaign. Owing to his situation, Schiller and his family frequently shifted their place of residence. This rendered it difficult for them to give their son the opportunity of acquiring an education by an uninterrupted routine of study and discipline. Yet this deficiency was partly made up by Friedrich's mother, who was a woman of some education, a lover of poetry and withal eminent for her piety. The latter virtue was a characteristic of both parents.

At a very early age, Friedrich evinced the possession of talents of no ordinary calibre, and his parents fostered his young genius with an unceasing care. He was often found strayed away from his playmates, and wandering amid the shades of the forest, by the quiet streams, or upon the margin of the tempest-tossed lake. On one occasion when only six years old, during a heavy thunderstorm, he was missing. His father, alarmed, went in search of him, and found him sitting high upon a tree, seemingly lost in admiration in the contemplation of the scene around him. When his father reprimanded him for his imprudence, he replied, that the lightning was very beautiful, and he wished to know whence it came.

The early unfolding of his extraordinary genius, and the naturally devout turn of his mind, determined his father to educate him for the church, and at ten years of age, he commenced theological studies. The subject was one into which the imagination might expand to infinite extent, and he pursued his tasks with all the fervor of youth and the industry of the student truly in love with his vocation. But a new theme for thought, a new inspiration seized him, and his love for the sublime study of theology was changed to one more temporal and exciting. He first saw about this time, a theatrical representation, and by it, his imagination was inflamed. He read Homer and Virgil, but cared little for the poetry—the dramatic interest of their poems was his chief delight. But the wings of his imagination were clipped, and his fiery ardor cooled, by a circumstance which had a lasting influence through the whole of his life.

The duke of Würtemberg, the patron of Schiller's father, established a free seminary for the study of the law, and offered Friedrich a place as a student. His father could not refuse his acquiescence, and there for several years he was subjected to severe studies, and harsh discipline ill-suited to his temperament or inclinations. His spirit often rebelled against the restraint to which he was subjected, but circumstances with iron rule, held him in check. At last, however, such was his aversion to the law, that he openly declared his discontent, and as a favor from the duke, he was permitted to change his studies from law to medicine. The latter pursuit was to him scarcely more tolerable than the former, and the free school of Würtemberg became to him a gloomy prison. While circumstances fastened him to his professional studies, genius beckoned him to the smiling fields of literature, whither, as often as possible he went as a truant, not to idly loiter, but to cull rich flowers with which to deck his sanctuary of knowledge. Many a time he feigned sickness, and retiring to his room would muse alone for hours, and write poetry with all the beauty and strength of a ripening child of song.

In his nineteenth year, he commenced the drama of the "Robber." When but fourteen years old, he completed an epic called "Moses," and soon after, "Cosmo Von Medicis." But the "Robber" was the first of his meritorious productions. He completed it in his twentieth year, about which time he had determined to sever the chains which bound him. As he approached manhood, he grew more eager to engage in the bustle of that stage, and the publication of his drama gave him courage to make an effort for liberty. This production astonished all Germany, and our future unrivalled poet, burst like a meteor on the literary world. But some moralists condemned portions of his work as bad sentiment to fall into the hands of youth, while thousands of enlightened minds pronounced it a masterpiece in literature and ethics. Among the former was the narrow-minded duke, who had seemed to Schiller like his evil genius, frustrating his darling hopes and crushing his budding genius. The duke commanded him to stick to his studies and send forth no more poetry to the world without his royal inspection! Others, jealous of his talents, intimated to the duke, that one so young and yet so talented, was a dangerous subject, and Schiller was threatened with imprisonment if he did not obey his royal master.

In this harassed state our poet remained for nearly two years, when, on the occasion of the arrival of a foreign prince which occupied all attention, he left the city by stealth, determined to become a cosmopolite rather than longer submit to the despotism of ignorant royalty. But Schiller was not entirely friendless. Dalbergh of the theatre at Manheim, where the "Robber" was first brought out, sent him money, and a generous lady in the neighborhood gave him a home. There he resumed his poetical labors, and in 1783, produced the tragedies of "Fiesco" and "Kabale un Liebe." These dramas gave him great celebrity, and soon after their publication he was appointed to the office of poet to the Manheim theatre. He also became a member of the literary society there, and renouncing his former citizenship, took an oath of allegiance and became a subject of the elector Palatine, which freed him from all fear of persecution from the duke, his former master. In 1785, he commenced the "Thalia," a periodical devoted principally to the drama. About this time, he wrote a series of "Philosophic Letters" concerning the destiny of man. These were read with great avidity, for they suited the taste of the imaginative Germans. He became the friend of the poet Körner, and was endeared to all classes in Manheim. In 1775, he removed to Leipzig, where he wrote his "Don Carlos," which was published and received with universal admiration and delight.

Though Schiller had been eminently successful in dramatic composition, yet about this time his mind turned toward history, and he resolved to write no more for the stage. Many lyrical productions of his pen appeared in his "Thalia," and in 1786, he published a novel of the wild and horrid character of the Mrs. Radcliffe school, entitled the "Ghostseer." But with this work he concluded his dealings with the fictitious, and he turned his attention to historical compositions, not only for the gratification of his taste, but for profit, for poverty was still his faithful companion. He now commenced the injurious practice of studying nights, which finally undermined his constitution, and planted a fatal disease in his system. The first of his historical works, was "The Revolt of the Netherlands."

In 1787, he visited Weimar, and there became acquainted with Goethe, Herder, and Wieland. The latter received him as a son, and gave him a home in his family. A few months after, he visited his old patroness, where he fell in with Lady Lengefield, a woman of talents and beauty, with whom he became enamored, and found his love reciprocated. He now had constant intercourse with Goethe. At first, so different were these great poets in sentiment and feeling, that they were repulsive to each other; but there was such a general affinity existing between their lofty genius, that they soon assimilated, and Schiller and Goethe became fast friends for life.

The publication of the "Revolt of the Netherlands" greatly increased his celebrity, and attracted the attention of learned professors to him. In 1789 Eichorn, professor of history in the university of Jena, resigned, and through the interposition of the princess Amelia, to whom Schiller was introduced by Goethe, he was selected to fill the vacant professorship. Here there was an end to his wanderings. He married the lady Lengefield, and with renewed ardor pursued his literary studies and labors. He gave frequent historical lectures, and in rapid succession produced six different historical works, at the same time attending to the duties of his office, the conduct of the "Thalia," and was engaged in writing a "History of the 'Thirty Years' War." But these arduous labors brought on a severe fit of sickness, rendering the relinquishment of mental labor for a time necessary. Thus thrown out of employment, he was harassed with the idea of bringing upon his adored wife the miseries of poverty. But from this he was soon relieved. The hereditary prince, duke of Holstein-Augustenberg, and the count Von Schimmelmann, conjointly bestowed on Schiller a pension of one thousand crowns for three years. This generous

favor put him beyond the reach of immediate poverty, and gave him quietude to regain his physical strength. His health improved, and with it his checked spirit fluttered with eagerness against its prison bars anxious to escape into those delightful fields where it was wont to roam. He partially resumed his labors in the university, and his attention was turned to the study of philosophy. New doctrines—dark and mysterious—had lately been put forth, and with all the fervency of his spirit, he applied himself to their investigation. They produced angry disputes in the university, but in none of these did he engage. He drank deeply at the fountain and looked anxiously far down into its mysterious depths in vain endeavors to fathom it. New light seemed to dawn upon him, and the result of his studies was the production of a series of letters on “*Æsthetic Culture*,” which produced a great sensation.

In 1793, he formed a connection with Goethe in the conduct of the “*Horen*,” a periodical which took the place of the “*Thalia*” and was more enlarged in scope. Another change now came over him, and his thoughts were again turned to dramatic writing, his legitimate sphere. After paying a visit to his venerable parents in Suabia, he returned to Jena, and commenced the writing of “*Wallenstein*.” This play was published in 1799, and was allowed to be the greatest dramatic production of the eighteenth century, not even excepting Goethe’s “*Faust*.” But the condition of his health obliged him to leave Jena in winter and he chose Weimar for his residence during the cold season. The duke of Saxe-Weimar became his warm friend and patron, allowed him a large pension, and even bestowed upon him a title of nobility. From 1800 to 1804, Schiller completed his dramas of “*Marie Stuart*,” “*Joan of Arc*,” “*Bride of Messina*,” and “*William Tell*.”

William Tell was considered one of his finest efforts. On returning from its representation in Berlin, Schiller was severely attacked with his former malady, but soon recovered, and continued his arduous labors. In the spring of 1805 he was again attacked, and on the ninth of May of that year, at the age of forty-five years, he yielded up his spirit to the God who gave it. “The news of his death,” says Coleridge, “fell cold on many a heart, not in Germany alone, but over Europe, it was regarded as a public loss, by all who understood its meaning.” In Weimar, the impression was deep and universal. The places of public amusement were closed, and all classes joined in doing homage to the remains of this great and good man.

JOHN JOSEPH GALL.

JOHN JOSEPH GALL, the celebrated phrenologist, was born, in 1758, at Teifenbrunn, Wirtemberg. He studied medicine under Professor Shermann, and settled in Vienna, where he attracted much attention by his “*Anatomical and Physiological Inquiries respecting the Brain and Nerves*,” on account of the principles it contained, that certain talents and tendencies depend on the formation of certain parts of the head—that, in fact, each faculty of the mind has a separate organ in the brain, and that those organs are marked externally by elevations or protuberances on the cranium. He afterward travelled through the north of Germany, Sweden, and Denmark, delivering lectures; and, in 1807, established himself in Paris, thinking France the most likely part in which to circulate his doctrines. Prince Metternich consulted him as his physician, and in 1810, guaranteed the expense of publishing the work of Gall and Spurzheim on phrenology. Dr. Gall died at Paris in 1828. He directed that no clergyman should attend his funeral, and that his head should be dissected and placed in the museum he had collected.

WILLIAM PITT.

WILLIAM PITT, an illustrious English statesman, was the second son of the earl of Chatham, and born May 28, 1759, at Hayes, in the county of Kent. After receiving the rudiments of his education at home, under the watchful superintendence of his father, he was sent to Pembroke hall, Cambridge, where his tutor was Dr. Prettyman; and on leaving the university he was entered at Lincoln's Inn, and in three years was called to the bar.

But he was destined shortly to move in a higher sphere. In 1780, he stood candidate for the university of Cambridge in parliament, but was unsuccessful. By means, however, of Sir James Lowther, he was returned for the borough of Appleby, and he immediately became one of the most distinguished opponents of the ministry. In 1782, he brought forward a motion for an inquiry into the state of the representation in parliament, which was rejected by a small majority. On the death of the marquis of Rockingham, Lord Shelburne obtained the office of first lord of the treasury; and Mr. Pitt, then only twenty-three years of age, was appointed chancellor of the exchequer. A general peace soon followed, which being made the ground of censure by a strong opposition, the cabinet was dissolved, and the Fox and North coalition took its place.

On his retirement from office, Mr. Pitt resumed his efforts for a reform in parliament, and submitted three specific motions on the subject, which, although supported by Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, were rejected. On the failure of the India bill of the latter, which produced the dismissal of the coalition, Mr. Pitt, although only in his twenty-fourth year, assumed the station of prime minister, by accepting the united posts of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. Although strongly supported by the sovereign (George III.), he stood opposed to a large majority of the house of commons, and a dissolution took place in March, 1786. At the general election which followed, the voice of the nation appeared decidedly in his favor, and some of the strongest aristocratical interests of the country were defeated, Mr. Pitt himself being returned by the university of Cambridge. His first measure was the passing of his India bill, establishing the board of control, which was followed by much of that fiscal and financial regulation which gave *éclat* to the early period of his administration.

One of the most momentous periods in modern history had now arrived. The French Revolution broke out, and produced a vibration in every neighboring state. War against free principles was declared on the one side, by which all amelioration was opposed; while, on the other, the friends of rational reformation found themselves confounded with ignorant and heated men, who espoused some of the wildest and most visionary innovations. Under this state of things a vigilant eye and a steady hand were obviously necessary to steer the vessel of state; and whatever opinions may be formed by different parties, in respect to the necessity of British interference with the affairs of France, or the measures adopted by the minister—whether he deserved the censures which were so lavishly heaped upon him, or whether he was entitled to the gratitude of his country, as “the pilot that weathered the storm”—certain it is that he displayed talents, energy, and perseverance, almost unparalleled in the world's history. At length he acceded to the wish that an experiment for peace should be tried, which took place in 1801, under Mr. Addington; but the event proved how fallacious were the hopes of the people—owing, in part, to the haughty and exacting spirit of Napoleon, but more, perhaps, to the non-fulfilment of treaty stipulations on the part of the British government, such as the refusal to deliver up the island of Malta &c.



Statue of William Pitt.

in 1804, Mr. Pitt once more resumed his post at the treasury. Returning to power as a war minister, he exerted all the energy of his character to render the contest with France successful, and found means, by the use of enormous subsidies, to engage the two great military powers of Russia and Austria in a new coalition, which, however, was dissolved by Napoleon at the great battle of Austerlitz (December, 1805), thus prostrating the two empires at his feet. But the health of the great minister was now in a very precarious state, and an hereditary gout, aggravated by public cares, and a too liberal use of wine, by way of stimulant, completely undermined his constitution; and he died January 23, 1806, in the thirty-seventh year of his age. A public funeral was decreed to his honor by parliament, as also a grant of forty thousand pounds to pay his debts; for although his whole life was devoted to the service of his country, such was his disinterestedness in pecuniary matters, that he never received one shilling of the public money beyond his fair emoluments of office, to supply the occasional great expenses to which he was put as prime minister.

A colossal statue of bronze, of which the preceding engraving is a representation, was erected in Hanover square, London, at the end of 1831, to the

memory of Mr. Pitt. The orator is represented in the act of speaking. This statue, which in many respects is the finest in the English capital, is the work of Mr. Chantrey.

Mr. Pitt was a minister of commanding powers, both as a financier and an orator. His eloquence, though not so imaginative as that of Burke, or so captivating as that of his father, "the great Lord Chatham," was more uniformly just and impressive than either; while the indignant severity and keenness of his sarcasm were unequalled.



ROBERT BURNS.

ROBERT BURNS, the greatest of Scottish poets, was the son of William Burns, a gardener and a small farmer, near the town of Ayr, and was born January 25th, 1759. He was brought up to rustic labor: but his education was not neglected, as he received, at an early age, instructions in English grammar, by a Mr. Murdock, to which he added an acquaintance with the French language and practical mathematics. Smitten with a passion for reading, he devoted every moment he could spare to the perusal of such books as fell in his way, and, among them, meeting with the works of some of the best English poets, he was enabled to cultivate and improve a taste for poetry and romantic fiction; which was, perhaps, first inspired by the chimney-corner tales of an old woman in his father's family whose memory was plentifully stored with adventures of fairies, witches, warlocks, ghosts, and goblins, which she religiously believed, and therefore detailed with the most impressive effect to her admiring auditors. Burns's first poetical effusions were prompted by love, a passion of which he was peculiarly susceptible. Having begun, he continued to make verses, which attracted the notice of his neighbors, and gained him considerable reputation.

In 1781, he engaged in business as a flax-dresser, in the town of Irvine; but his premises were destroyed by fire, and he was obliged to relinquish the undertaking. His father dying, he took a small farm in conjunction with a younger brother; and this scheme also proved unsuccessful. In the meantime, he

had formed a connection with a young woman, which promised the birth of a child, and he would have married; but his ruined circumstances induced her friends to object to it. Thus unsuccessful at home, he engaged himself as assistant overseer to a plantation in Jamaica. To obtain the funds necessary for the voyage, he was induced to publish, by subscription, a volume of his poetical effusions. It was accordingly printed at Kilmarnock in 1786, and Burns, having derived from the publication the assistance he expected, was about to set sail from his native land, when his purpose was prevented by the communication of a letter from Doctor Blacklock to a friend of the Ayrshire poet, recommending that he should visit Edinburgh, in order to take advantage of the general admiration his poems had excited, and publish a new edition of them. This advice was eagerly adopted, and the result exceeded his most sanguine expectations. After remaining more than a year in the Scottish metropolis, admired, flattered, and caressed, by persons of eminence for their rank, fortune, or talents, he retired to the country with the sum of five hundred pounds, which he had realized by the second publication of his poems. A part of this sum he advanced to his brother, and with the remainder, took a considerable farm near Dumfries, and at the same time procured the office of an exciseman.

He now also completed his matrimonial engagement with Miss Armour, the young woman whom he had previously desired to marry. His convivial habits ere long prevented him from paying a proper attention to his farm; and, after a trial of three years and a half, he found himself obliged to resign his lease, and remove to the town of Dumfries, to follow his employment as an exciseman. He continued to exercise his pen, particularly in the composition of a number of beautiful songs, adapted to old Scottish tunes, for a periodical work published at Edinburgh. But his residence in Dumfries was by no means favorable to his habits. His society was courted by the idle, the gay, and the dissipated, who were delighted with his conversation, or charmed with his brilliant wit; and, perhaps, many who had little sympathy with the powers of his genius were eager to solicit his acquaintance and society, that they might be able to boast of an intimacy with so extraordinary a man. In the winter of 1795, his constitution, broken by cares, irregularities, and passions, fell into premature decline. The summer returned, but only to shine on his sickness and his grave. In July, 1796, a rheumatic fever terminated his life and sufferings on the twenty-second of the same month, at the early age of thirty-seven. He was buried with military honors, three days after, though he had said to a comrade a short time before his death, "John, don't let the awkward squad fire over me." The old kirkyard of Dumfries was the poet's burial-place. In 1816, the grave was opened to remove the body to a more commodious part, and a neat mausoleum now points the traveller to the place of his earthly repose. A statue of the poet, executed by Flaxman, has been erected at Edinburgh.

Burns left a wife and four children, for whose support his friends and admirers raised a subscription; and with the same object, an edition of his works, in four volumes 8vo, was published by Dr. Currie, of Liverpool. In his person, Burns was about five feet ten inches high, of a form that indicated strength as well as agility; his forehead was finely raised; his eyes were dark, large, full of ardor and intelligence. His character, though marred by imprudence, was never contaminated by duplicity or meanness. He was an honest, proud, warm-hearted man; combining sound understanding with high passions and a vigorous and excursive imagination. He was alive to every species of emotion; and he is one of the few poets who have at once excelled in humor, in tenderness, and in sublimity. His songs, his tales, and his poetical epistles, display pathos, wit, a vigor of sentiment, and a purity and elegance of style, while his prose is almost equal to his poetry.



JAMES MONROE.

JAMES MONROE, the fifth president of the United States, was born on the 2d of April, 1759, in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia; and it is a singular fact that the coast section of that state produced four of the first five presidents. His life began in exciting and patriotic times, the stamp-act having been passed by the British parliament when he was but six years old; and in the eighteenth year of his age, his heart swelling with chivalric pride and love of country, he left the college of William and Mary, where he was pursuing his studies, and hastened to join the standard of his country. He arrived at General Washington's headquarters, in New York, shortly after the declaration of independence, and at the gloomy moment when the dauntless chief, deserted by the wavering, the selfish, and the faint-hearted, was calmly preparing with his little force to receive the shock of the increasing armies of England. During the whole of the disastrous, but ever-memorable year of 1776, the young volunteer shared the defeats and privations of the army; he was engaged in the battles of Harlem Heights, White Plains, and Trenton, in the latter of which he received a wound while leading the vanguard. He was promoted for his gallantry to the rank of a captain of infantry, and after recovering from his wound returned to active service. In the campaigns of 1777, and 1778, he acted as aid to Lord Sterling and was distinguished for his valor in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. In 1780, when Charleston had fallen into the hands of the British, he proceeded to the southern army as military commissioner, to ascertain the ability of that portion of the national forces to rescue the southern states from the enemy.

In 1782, Mr. Monroe was elected from King George county, to the Virginia

legislature, and chosen by that body, shortly after, a member of the executive council. In the following year, he was elected a delegate to the continental congress, and arrived at Annapolis just in time to be present when General Washington surrendered his appointment as commander-in-chief. Mr. Monroe remained in Congress till 1786—during that time becoming convinced of the necessity of a re-organization of the government, and an extension of the powers of Congress. Accordingly, in 1785, he introduced resolutions vesting Congress with the power of regulating trade, and the power of levying an impost duty of five per cent. These resolutions were referred to a special committee, of which Mr. Monroe was chairman. This committee reported in favor of both objects, and proposed various amendments in the articles of confederation, thus contributing to hasten the national convention at Annapolis, where the constitution of the United States was adopted.

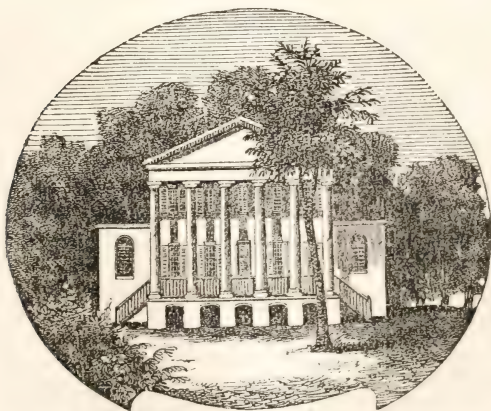
During the period of his congressional term at New York, Mr. Monroe married Miss Kortright, a young lady celebrated in the fashionable circles of New York and London for her beauty and accomplishments. In 1786, his congressional term having expired, and being, according to the rules of that day, ineligible for a second term, Mr. Monroe retired to Fredericksburg, Virginia, where he commenced the practice of the law. He was soon, however, recalled to active life, being elected first to the state legislature, and subsequently to the state convention to decide upon adopting the federal constitution. He was not entirely satisfied with the constitution, although in favor of a re-organization of the federal government, and on the final vote, by which it passed the convention, he recorded his vote in the negative. In 1790, Mr. Monroe was appointed to the United States senate where he remained until 1794, acting, generally, with the anti-federalists, and against Washington and his administration, in conjunction with Mr. Madison and most of the Virginia delegation. In this latter year, Mr. Monroe was appointed minister to France, in place of Gouverneur Morris, who had been recalled at the request of the French government. His course at the French court not being consistent with General Washington's views respecting neutrality, he was recalled in 1796, and C. C. Pinckney appointed in his place. On his return, Mr. Monroe published a volume in explanation and defence of his cause, and in censure of the administration.

Shortly after, he was elected to the Virginia legislature, by which body he was, in 1799, chosen governor of the state, which office he held for three years. In 1803, he was appointed envoy-extraordinary to France, to assist in negotiating for the purchase of New Orleans, and also associated with Mr. Pinckney, at Madrid, to negotiate the purchase of Louisiana. Meanwhile, Louisiana had been ceded to France, and upon Mr. Monroe's arrival in Paris, he found it possible to obtain not only New Orleans, but the whole of Louisiana. In a fortnight the treaty was concluded, and Mr. Monroe proceeded to London to act as successor to Mr. Rufus King, who had resigned. From London he soon was called to Madrid to attempt adjusting a dispute with Spain respecting the boundary of Louisiana, in which he was arrested, by being recalled to London to maintain our rights as neutrals against the systematic encroachments of Great Britain. Here he remained until 1807, when he returned to the United States, and became a competitor with Mr. Madison for the nomination to the presidency. The latter gentleman was selected, and in 1811, Mr. Monroe was again elected governor of Virginia, but shortly afterward resigned to accept the nomination of secretary of state, tendered him by Mr. Madison, which office he filled during the remainder of Mr. Madison's administration. After the capture of Washington city, and General Armstrong's resignation of the office of secretary of the treasury, Mr. Monroe was also appointed to that office, without resigning his position in the state department. While secretary of the treasury, it became necessary to raise a certain sum of money for the

defence of New Orleans, but the credit of the government being then at a low ebb, he pledged his own private credit for the amount, and the necessary sum was thus raised.

In 1816, Mr. Monroe was nominated to the presidency by the democratic party, and elected. The course of policy generally pursued by Mr. Monroe was, in the main, a prolongation of that of Mr. Madison, and need not be especially noticed here. Among the important measures of his administration was the cession of Florida to the United States, by Spain in 1819, thus including within the limits of the United States all the territory north of Mexico. In 1820, he was re-elected to the presidency, receiving EVERY VOTE of the electoral colleges except one. So rapid had been the development of the country, that during his presidency, six new states were added to the Union. The admission of Missouri, involving the question of whether slavery should be allowed in the new state, arrayed the north and south against each other, in bitter hostility, until it was finally compromised in 1821. In 1830, he removed to New York to reside with his son-in-law, Mr. Samuel L. Gouverneur. His health was very much shattered, and here, surrounded by the kindest attentions of his affectionate family, he remained until his death, which occurred on the 4th of July, 1831, in the seventy-second year of his age—adding another to those remarkable coincidences respecting the national anniversary already mentioned in our notices of Adams and Jefferson.

Mr. Monroe was about six feet high and well formed, with light complexion and blue eyes. Honesty, firmness, and prudence, rather than superior intellect, were stamped upon his countenance. He was industrious and indefatigable in labor, warm in his friendships, and in manners was a good specimen of the old Virginia gentleman. His long life was honorable to himself and useful to his country.



Residence of James Monroe, London County, Virginia.*



THOMAS ADDIS EMMET.

THOMAS ADDIS EMMET, an eminent Irish lawyer and patriot, was born in the city of Cork, in Ireland, April 24, 1764. His parents were highly respectable inhabitants of that city, in easy circumstances. The son was placed, in his boyhood, at the university of Dublin, and designed by his father for the profession of medicine. He was educated accordingly, and pursued his medical studies at Edinburgh. The death of his elder brother, a member of the Irish bar, occasioned him to pass from the practice of medicine to the study of the law, at the desire of his parents. He went to London, read two years in the Temple, and attended the courts at Westminster. On his return to Dublin, he commenced practice, and soon obtained distinction and business. The celebrated Curran was one of his circuit and term companions.

Being of an ardent character, and enthusiastically Irish, Mr. Emmet imbibed deeply the resentment and antipathy of the majority of his countrymen against the British rule and connection. When the societies of United Irishmen were revived in the year 1795, he joined the association, and soon became a leader. Their object was revolution, and an independent government for Ireland. Emmet acted as one of the grand executive committee of the societies, which consisted of at least five hundred thousand men. March 12, 1798, he was arrested, and committed to prison at Dublin, as a conspirator, by the vice-regal government, with Oliver Bond, Dr McNeven, and other chiefs of the disaffected party. In July, after a severe confinement, an interview took place between Emmet and Lord Castlereagh, at Dublin castle, and it was agreed that he and the

other state prisoners should be permitted to embark for the United States as soon as they had made certain disclosures of their plans of revolution, and the projected alliance between the United Irishmen and France. These disclosures were made in a memoir, delivered August 4th, but without the confession of any names, which were inflexibly refused by the writers. They were, soon after, examined in person before the secret committees of both houses of the Irish parliament.

Instead, however, of being sent to the United States, Emmet and nineteen more were, early in 1799, landed in Scotland, and consigned to Fort George, a fortress in the county of Nairn. Here they were liberally treated, but their detention lasted three years. At the expiration of that period, the list of pardons arrived, including the name of every prisoner except Emmet. The governor of the fortress released him notwithstanding, taking all the responsibility. Emmet, and his exemplary wife, who had shared unremittingly his imprisonment, in both Ireland and Scotland, were landed at Cuxhaven from a British frigate, spent the winter of the year 1802 in Brussels, and that of 1803 in Paris. In October, 1804, they sailed from Bordeaux for the United States, and arrived in New York on the 11th of the next month.

Emmet, then about forty years of age, at first hesitated between the professions of the law and medicine; but his friends determined him to undertake the former. George Clinton, then governor of the state of New York, induced him to abandon his original plan of settling in Ohio, and to remain in the city of New York. He was admitted to the bar at once, by special dispensation, and reached the first ranks of the profession in a short time, by indefatigable industry and fervid eloquence. In the course of a few years he rivalled in business and fame the most eminent of the American lawyers. Occasionally the ardor of his temperament and the vivacity of his recollections betrayed him into party politics; but his general career and character were those of a laborious, able, and most successful pleader, an energetic and florid orator, a sound republican citizen, and a courteous gentleman. In 1812, he was appointed to the office of attorney-general of the state of New York. His death took place in the sixty-third year of his age, in a remarkable way. November 14, 1827, while attending the trial of an important cause at New York, in the circuit court of the United States, he was seized with an apoplectic fit, which put an end to his existence the following night. It was only on the 13th that he had delivered a most animated and powerful address to a jury in a cause of the greatest importance and difficulty. An ample and deserved tribute of public respect was paid to his memory. A marble bust, forming an excellent likeness, has been placed in the court-room where he met with his fatal illness; and a beautiful monument of white marble, a single shaft thirty feet in height, is erected to his memory in St. Paul's churchyard, New York, with eloquent inscriptions in English, Latin, and ancient Irish. On the face of the obelisk fronting Broadway, and near the top, is a medallion likeness of Emmet in bas-relief, of colossal size, and presenting a striking resemblance to the original. On the same face are represented the American eagle, and the Irish harp unstrung; and surmounting these are two hands clasped together, on the bracelet of one of which are the stars of our Union, on that of the other the Irish shamrock.

Mr. Emmet was a thorough classical scholar, and conversant with the physical sciences. During his detention at the fortress in Scotland, he wrote part of an "Essay toward the History of Ireland," which was printed in New York in 1807. His private life was irreproachable, his countenance strong and regular, and frame erect and manly. His features bore an expression of sorrow; and the first impression that one had on looking at him might induce the beholder to say, "There is one who has thought much and suffered much." The very tones of his voice had a touch of lamentation in them.



ROBERT FULTON.

ROBERT FULTON, whose successful exertions to furnish a *medium* of transportation which "brings the inhabitants of the world nearer each other" have shed upon his name a lustre that must be visible to the latest posterity, was born in the town of Little Britain, in the county of Lancaster, state of Pennsylvania, in the year 1765, of poor but respectable parents. He was the third child and eldest son. He was left an orphan, by the death of his father, at a very early age. His primary education was very limited, but his genius was very conspicuous even in his childhood. His inventive talent was known to all the mechanics in his neighborhood before he was twelve years of age. Without any instruction, he discovered remarkable talents for painting; and while quite a boy, gained his living by his pencil, in painting landscapes and portraits; and thus he was enabled in part to purchase a small farm for his widowed mother.

Franklin observed the talents of young Fulton, and incited him to develop them still farther. He was encouraged to go to England and put himself under the care of his countryman, Mr. West. This he did, and was received by that great and good man with the friendship of a father. Fulton was an inmate of West's family for several years. He then, for some time, followed the profession of a painter on his own account; but his inventive genius was predominant, and his head was teeming with plans for the improvement of inland navigation, and other matters of utility. At this period he obtained several patents from the British government, some of which proved to be very useful. His success as an inventor greatly improved his style in writing; for he was careful to employ words that would, as near as possible, convey his meaning; and this early attention to a correct use of language is remarkable in all his writings, even those in which he expresses himself with the greatest enthusiasm. A mind so prolific as his could not for a moment be at rest, and he would often write papers upon national policy and political economy. During his stay of two years in Devonshire, he became acquainted with the duke of Bridgewater, famous for his canal projects, and with Lord Stanhope, well known for his at-

tachment to the mechanic arts. About this time (in 1796) he published his work on canals.

In 1797, Mr. Fulton left England for France, and formed a warm friendship with Joel Barlow, the American philosopher and poet, then residing in Paris. Living now with Mr. Barlow, and being at ease, he was at liberty to indulge his passion for invention. He projected panoramas, torpedoes, and other novelties; the latter invention he thought of so much importance to mankind, that he invoked national aid from France, then from Holland, and afterward from England, but all to but little purpose, notwithstanding he had made many wonderful experiments to test the power of his "awful machine." He also studied chemistry, physics, and mathematics, and acquired a knowledge of the French, German, and Italian languages, while residing in Paris.

The next subject that engaged the mind of Fulton was the propelling of boats by steam. A hundred years before his birth, the marquis of Worcester had discovered the expansive power of steam; and inventions, suggested by this discovery, had been made from time to time, down to the great improvement on the steam-engine by Watt: but, as yet, no practical use had been made of steam in propelling boats. Experiments had been made in England, in Scotland (by Mr. Miller), and in the United States (by Mr. Fitch), but success had as yet virtually failed. In 1801, while he was residing with his friend Mr. Barlow, Fulton met in Paris Chancellor Livingston, the American minister, who explained to him the importance in America of navigating boats by steam, though Mr. Fulton (as before remarked) had already conceived the project as early as 1793, while residing in England, as appears by his letter to Lord Stanhope. He now engaged anew in the affair, and at the common expense of himself and Mr. Livingston built a boat on the Seine, in the year 1803, and successfully navigated the river. He had made his first experiment on submarine explosions five years before, in the same river, in which he was unsuccessful. His plan for a sub-marine boat was afterward perfected. The principles of the steam-engine he did not invent; he only claimed the application of that machine to water-wheels for propelling vessels.

In 1806, Fulton returned to the United States; and he and Mr. Livingston built, in 1807, the first boat, the "Clermont," one hundred and thirty feet in length, which navigated the Hudson at the rate of five or six miles an hour. This served to satisfy philosophical men of that day that something practical in steam navigation had at length been accomplished; and so well convinced was the public that Fulton had achieved something for the benefit of the world, that the state of New York gave to him and Mr. Livingston certain exclusive privileges in the navigation of the Hudson for thirty years, under proper restrictions. Fulton saw, when he first turned his attention to the subject of steamboats, that, if he could succeed, he should recreate the western world, which presented to the adventurer fifty thousand miles of steamboat navigation, in all the great and small streams of his own almost boundless country. He lived to see his anticipations realized. Experience soon corrected numerous errors that theory could not anticipate; and the great wonder was daily becoming more wonderful. At this time (and will not the fact be sufficient to silence the tongues of all cavillers?) there was not a steamboat on the globe, in successful operation, but his own—the "Clermont," before referred to. This was built and was running under his direction. The difficulties which men of genius have to encounter are innumerable. Every one who has had some vague idea of the same thing, claims to have been the original inventor, and cries out loudly that he has been circumvented, pillaged, and destroyed! Every mechanic, who may have assisted the inventor in getting his machine into operation, claims the honor of this or that suggestion; and if each and all were believed, there would not be a particle of merit left for the great mind whose

intellectual light woke to life the swarm that was buzzing around him. The doubtful and the timid are ready to sneer, and but few, even of the judicious, are sufficiently brave to come out in the defence of a man who is venturing on a new and bold experiment.

In February, 1809, Fulton took out his first patent for his invention, and two years afterward another for some improvements on his original discoveries. In 1810, he published his "Torpedo War." In 1811 and 1812 he built two steam ferry-boats for crossing the Hudson: he contrived also ingenious boating docks for the reception of these boats, which, together with the boats, succeeded to admiration. In 1813, he obtained a patent for his sub-marine battery. The ingenuity of this and other countries was taxed to rival Fulton, so envious were many that his success should be complete; but their powers failed in the attempt, and his triumph was acknowledged by all, who were not directly interested, to have been overwhelming to all his enemies.

The government of the United States was so well convinced of the inventive powers of Fulton, that in March, 1814, an appropriation of three hundred and twenty thousand dollars was made by Congress for constructing a steam-frigate under his superintendence. In about four months she was launched, with the name of "Fulton the First." It was not, however, in readiness for use until the close of the war in which she was to be engaged for seacoast defence; but, from the trial made after she was finished, there can be no doubt that she would have succeeded to the full measure of his promise to the nation. Before the completion of his frigate, and while employed in improving his sub-marine boat, Fulton had paid the debt of nature. He died, February 24, 1815, in the fifty-first year of his age—an early exit for one who had done so much for his country, and indeed for the world. His fame was so extensive, that his death was sincerely mourned throughout the republic, for he was regarded as national property; and much was still expected of one in the full vigor of mind and body. His disease was brought on suddenly, being a violent inflammation of the chest, produced from a cold caught by exposure during an inclement season, while in the discharge of his public duties.

Mr. Fulton had not only attracted the gaze of the world by his scientific attainments, but had secured many friends, who loved him for his virtues and admired him for his talents. In person, he was tall and graceful, and without hauteur or affectation; he was colloquial and affectionate, and at times spoke with eloquence and majesty. Avarice never had for a moment the slightest control over him; and if he ever seemed anxious for wealth, it was to lavish it in schemes of improvement for the benefit of mankind. His sharp, dark eye never flashed with envy and hatred, but beamed with benignity on all around him. His enmities, amid all his trials, soon passed away, but his friendships were imperishable. The splendid plates, executed under his care and at his expense, to be found in the quarto edition of "The Columbiad," are proofs of his friendship to Barlow; and that we possess some of West's paintings in this country, is more owing to his friendship and respect for his old master than to the liberality of any other individual in the Union.

The following is a brief explanation of some of the inventions of Fulton, besides the steamboats: A machine for making ropes, which can stand in a room forty feet square, and by which the rope-yarns are put on spools, and any sized cordage made by one man. For this, and also for a machine for spinning flax, as well as his invention of a double inclined plane, he obtained patents in England, in 1794.—The sub-marine boat, having a mainsail and jib like a sloop; the mast and sails could be taken in, and the boat dive under water in one minute, and be rowed and steered by a compass. Thus a torpedo could be fixed to the bottoms of ships-of-war. Fulton and three others continued under water one hour. He supposed that five men might continue under water six

hours, and rise fifteen miles from the point of submersion.—The torpedo, a copper case, containing fifty or a hundred pounds of powder, discharged by a gunlock, which strikes by means of clock-work set to any short time. He proposed to attach to it a rope of sixty or eighty feet in length, and fasten it by a gun-harpoon to the bow of a vessel, whose motion would draw it under her bottom, and thus she might be blown up. Fulton entertained the opinion that a few row-boats, each armed with a torpedo, might attack a ship-of-war, and be pretty sure to succeed.

ANDREW HOFER.

ANDREW HOFER, commander of the Tyrolese in the insurrection of 1809, during the war between Austria and France, was born in 1767, in the inn of St. Leonard in Passeyr, called the "Inn on the Sand," which he afterward kept, and carried on a trade to Italy in wine and horses.

In 1796, when the war approached Tyrol, he led a rifle-company from his own country against the French on Lake Guarda. After the peace of Lunéville, the militia of Tyrol was organized, on which occasion Hofer displayed great zeal. In 1808, a rupture between the cabinets of St. Cloud and Vienna appearing unavoidable, in consequence of the advances of the French arms in Spain, much agitation took place in Tyrol, which country, by the treaty of Presburg, had been transferred by Napoleon from Austria to the king of Bavaria, as the ally of the French. Private messengers went to Vienna, among whom was Andrew Hofer, and laid before the archduke John, commander of the army of Austria proper, the wishes of the mountaineers. By his command, the baron of Hormayr formed the plan for an insurrection, and for the occupation of those mountains, the keys of Italy and Germany.

The riches and influence of Hofer, his athletic form and decided character, all combined to induce the insurgents to elect him their chief. Everything prospered. Between the 11th and 13th of April, 1809, almost the whole country was conquered, and eight thousand of the best troops of Bavaria were made prisoners by the peasants. April 12, Hofer forced a battalion of Bavarians in the plain of Stertzing to surrender. His people advanced on the Bavarian artillery with hay-carts, and attacked the cavalry with pitchforks, flails, and clubs. They rolled trunks of trees and rocks down upon their enemies, and made cannon of wood with iron hoops. Women and children were seen fighting, or loading the rifles of the men. Northern and middle Tyrol having been freed from the Bavarians, Hofer advanced with Hormayr into the southern, from which Baraguay d'Hilliers was driven out with great loss.

Meanwhile, the French, after the victory of Eckmühl and Ratisbon, had advanced toward Vienna. The Bavarians now invaded Tyrol with great devastation. On the day of the surrender of Vienna, General Chasteler suffered a defeat near Mörgel. He retreated to the central position of the Brenner, and fought his way through the enemy, leaving General Buol with a small corps for the defence of Tyrol.

Hofer now appeared upon the Brenner, and became the idol of the Tyrolese. Two battles, fought on the 25th and 29th of May, 1809, near the Isel mountain, in sight of Innspruck, the capital city, forced the Bavarians again to leave Tyrol. At the beginning of June, Hofer and his band took part in the relief of Count Leiningen, who was besieged in Trent. He was upon the point of joining the regular troops, who were to take possession of Klagenfurt, and to restore to the closely-blockaded and suffering Tyrol a communication with the interior of the



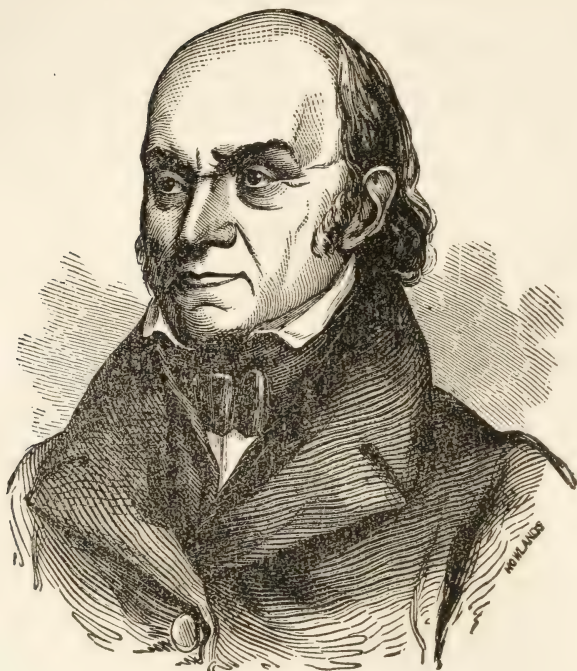
Statue of Andrew Hofer.

imperial states, when the battle of Wagram (which for the third time compelled the emperor of Austria to succumb to the power of Napoleon) was succeeded by the armistice of Znaim (July 12), the terms of which required that the Austrians should abandon Tyrol and the Vorarlberg to the vengeance of the enemy. In consequence of this, the wildest commotions arose among the forsaken people. Some of the most furious wished to retain by force General Buol and Hormayr; to seize the cannon and ammunition; to disarm those who would not join them; and to murder the prisoners. But the greatest part of the mischief was prevented. The Austrian troops withdrew, according to the conditions of the truce. Hofer concealed himself in a cave, in the valley of the Passeyr. But the enemy, who had already penetrated the Tyrol, suffered, from the 3d to the 9th of August, 1809, repeated attacks from the armed populace. Then Hofer issued from his retreat, and appeared as the chief leader of the Tyrolese. The second battle of Mount Isel, on the 13th of August, compelled the marshal-duke of Dantzic to evacuate Tyrol.

Hofer now carried on the military and civil administration, under the most singular circumstances, till the peace of Vienna was proclaimed (October 14, 1809). Among other things, he coined money with his image. The people, continually deceived by the most contradictory rumors, for a long time gave but little credit to the report of the peace. Several corps of the enemy had already entered the Tyrolese mountains. The people were prepared for desperate resistance, when Hofer, on the 1st, 5th, and 8th of November, declared his submission to the viceroy of Italy, Prince Eugene, and to the commander-in-chief of the Bavarians.

In the middle of November, misled by the false reports of some of the insurgents, Hofer commenced hostilities anew, and thus forfeited the protection of the amnesty. He then remained concealed in an Alpine hut, in Passeyr, amid snow and ice. For a long time, neither the golden promises nor the threats of the French general could induce any one in these mountains to betray his place of concealment. At last a priest, named Donay, formerly a confidant of Hofer, and who had been despatched by him with his submission to the viceroy at Villach, but had afterward been offended by him, communicated to General Baraguay d'Hilliers the name of the man who carried food to Hofer and his family. This man was prevailed on, partly by promises, partly by menaces of death, to serve as a guide to the troops. They discovered Hofer, January 20, 1810, and carried him to Mantua, where a court-martial was held. Hofer was shot, February 20, at Mantua. He met his death with firmness. The family of Hofer was indemnified for the loss of their property by the emperor of Austria, in 1819, and his son ennobled. A life of Hofer, which was published at Innspruck, was prohibited by the Austrian government in 1814, probably on account of the liberal ideas and patriotic sentiments which it contained. His body, however, is now buried at Innspruck, in the splendid cathedral of the place, in consequence of the general wish of the people, who revere him as a martyr. An immense concourse of Tyroleans followed the removal of his remains to the tomb, over which the statue represented in our engraving has been erected. It is of pure white Carrara marble, is eight feet high, and stands on a block of white marble, also about eight feet high. This simple and noble statue of Hofer heightens in no small degree the sublime effect produced upon a visiter to the cathedral of the Holy Cross, the unrivalled mausoleum in which his remains repose.

The death of Hofer's widow occurred as recently as 1836. She was in her seventy-second year: she had lived in retirement with her daughters from the time of her husband's execution.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, the sixth president of the United States, was born on the 11th day of July, 1767, at the family mansion of his father, John Adams, in Quincy, Massachusetts, and christened by the name of John Quincy, after his great-grandfather, who was a distinguished citizen of the province about the commencement of the eighteenth century. At the age of eleven years, he accompanied his father to France, and received the daily caresses and instructions of Doctor Franklin and other distinguished men there. Thus he in a measure entered public life in early childhood. In 1780, he again accompanied his father to France. He went to school a short time in Paris; and on the removal of his father to Holland, he was sent, first to the public school in Amsterdam, and afterward to the city university of Leyden. In 1781, then only fourteen years of age, he accompanied Mr. Francis Dana to Russia. Mr. Dana had been appointed ambassador to that court, and young Adams went as his private secretary. In the winter of 1782-'3, he travelled alone through Sweden and Denmark, thence to Hamburg and Bremen, and reached the Hague, where his father was then minister for the United States. When, in 1785, his father was appointed a minister to England, he asked leave to return home and complete his education. He entered Harvard university, where he graduated in July, 1787. He then went to Newburyport, where he completed his law studies with Chief-Justice Theophilus Parsons, and removed to Boston for the purpose of practising his profession.

Mr. Adams had been a close observer of political events, and in 1793, upon the breaking out of hostilities between Great Britain and France, he published a series of papers to prove that the just policy of the United States was neutral-

ity in this contest. Shortly afterward the proclamation of neutrality by General Washington, sanctioned by all his cabinet, was published, containing precisely the same views as those put forth by Mr. Adams: views which, from that time, have continued to be the basis of our foreign policy. During the two or three years following, Mr. Adams wrote and published many essays on the politics of his country, which attracted great attention, and established their author as a statesman and political economist. General Washington himself had made particular inquiries as to their author, and, in 1794, appointed him minister resident at the Netherlands, where he remained about two years, regularly corresponding with his government on the state and affairs of Europe. Toward the close of General Washington's administration, he appointed Mr. Adams minister to Portugal; but while on his way there, he received a new commission, changing his destination to Berlin. His father, having succeeded General Washington in the presidency, had made this change, which he deemed necessary to the interests of the country; but not till he had received the unqualified approbation of the measure from Washington himself. He achieved the object for which he had been sent to Berlin—the negotiation of a treaty of commerce—and returned home in 1801.

The next year he was elected to the senate of Massachusetts from the district of Boston, and, in 1803, was chosen by the legislature, United States' senator. Here he pursued a moderate course, sustaining the administration of Mr. Jefferson whenever his judgment permitted him to do so. He agreed, in particular, with Mr. Jefferson on the subject of the embargo; and for this was censured by a vote of the Massachusetts legislature. In consequence of this, not choosing to continue to represent a constituency differing with him in opinion, he resigned his seat in the senate. Previous to his resignation he had been appointed professor of rhetoric and oratory in Harvard college, where he delivered a series of lectures on the art of speaking well.

In 1809, Mr. Adams was appointed minister plenipotentiary to Russia, being the first full ambassador sent from the United States to that country. He was well received in St. Petersburg, and formed a close personal intimacy with the czar and his principal officers of state. In September, 1812, news of the declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain reached the Russian court; and the emperor Alexander, through Mr. Adams, offered his services as mediator between the two countries. The offer was formally accepted by the American government in the following March; but the British ministry declined the mediation, and proposed instead a direct negotiation with the United States, which terminated in peace. Mr. Adams was appointed, with James A. Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell, and Albert Gallatin, a commission to negotiate a peace; and the treaty was finally signed at Ghent, in 1814. Soon after, Mr. Adams was employed, in conjunction with Messrs. Clay and Gallatin, in negotiating a convention of commerce with Great Britain, which still remains as the basis of our commercial relations with that nation. In 1815, Mr. Adams was appointed minister to Great Britain, in which capacity he served until the accession of Mr. Monroe to the presidency, in 1817. Recalled from his mission abroad, he was tendered by the president the office of secretary of state, which he accepted and continued to fill during both terms of Mr. Monroe's administration, discharging its arduous and responsible duties in such a manner as to win the confidence and respect of the president and all his cabinet. Among the important measures of foreign policy carried out by Mr. Adams, was the policy of recognising the independence of the republics of South America, the credit of having originated the measure being due to Mr. Clay. Mr. Adams was also mainly instrumental in settling our protracted difficulties with Spain, by which our merchants were indemnified, and Florida added to our republic.

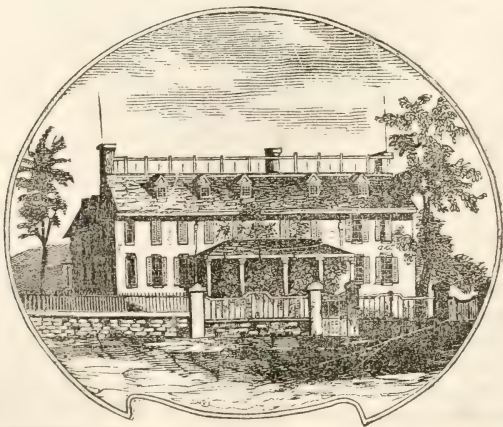
In 1824, Mr. Adams became a candidate for the presidency, his competitors

being General Jackson, and Messrs. Crawford and Clay. Upon opening the votes of the electoral colleges, it was ascertained that neither candidate had a majority of all the votes. The election consequently went to the house of representatives, and resulted in the election of Mr. Adams, on the first ballot.

Soon after entering upon the duties of his office, Mr. Adams found a powerful opposition to his administration in Congress, and before the close of it, party lines had been distinctly drawn. He was a candidate for the presidency on the expiration of his first term, which resulted in the choice of General Jackson; and in 1829, Mr. Adams left the presidential chair to retire to private life, beloved by his political friends, and highly respected by his opponents, for the able manner in which he had conducted his administration, which had been one of almost unshaken peace with foreign nations, and prosperity at home.

But he was not long permitted to enjoy the repose of private life. In 1830, he was elected to represent in Congress the district in which he resided, and in December, 1831, he took his seat in the house of representatives. He was then in the sixty-fifth year of his age. From that time, until the day of his death he continued a member of the house, and one of its most active and indefatigable laborers. His fervid eloquence on all occasions where his feelings were warmly enlisted, obtained for him the appellation of "the old man eloquent." His feelings and his exertions were ever enlisted on the side of popular freedom and human rights; and in the national legislature he was one of the stoutest champions of the right of petition in its broadest sense. He was prostrated by paralysis, while in his seat in the house of representatives, on the 22d day of February, 1848; and the day following he yielded up his spirit to God, in the eighty-first year of his age. His last words were, "This is the end of earth."

Mr. Adams was of middle stature and rather full person, and his dark, penetrating eyes beamed with intelligence. He had unbending, moral, and physical courage; at all times dared to maintain his opinions bravely, and had that kind of persevering industry and ambition which made him satisfied with nothing but triumphant success. He was often severe and sarcastic in his arguments and criticisms, and was liable to do too much for his cause; yet he was honest in his motives, craved the right, sought the line of duty with unbending uprightness, and was doubtless a pure patriot, and a lover of his country and race. No man of his generation was his equal in political and historical knowledge which made him a giant in debate, invulnerable on all hands, and fortified by facts and history in all his positions.



Residence of John Quincy Adams, Quincy, Massachusetts



ANDREW JACKSON.

The ancestors of General Jackson were Scotch presbyterians; but they emigrated in the early part of the seventeenth century to Ireland, whence a branch of the family emigrated to America, in 1765, and settled at Waxhaw, in South Carolina. Andrew Jackson was born at this settlement on the 15th of March, 1767, and his father died a few months afterward. Andrew's mother desired to educate him for the ministry in the church, and he began his studies with that view. When nine years old, however, the war of the Revolution commenced; and being constantly surrounded by the preparations of the citizens to defend their homes and firesides, the natural bent of his genius soon manifested itself. In 1780, being then but little more than thirteen years of age, he, in company with an elder brother Robert, joined a corps of volunteers under command of Col. Davies, attached to General Sumter's brigade. On the 6th of August, 1780, an action took place at Hanging Rock, in which the Jacksons particularly distinguished themselves. In 1781, both boys were taken prisoners by a party of dragoons, and subjected to many hardships and indignities. At length they were released by exchange, and with their mother returned to Waxhaw settlement. Both Robert and Andrew were ill from the effects of the treatment they had experienced, and Robert died in a few days after reaching home. Shortly afterward, the mother went to Charleston to minister to some of her relatives and friends confined in the prison-ship there, where she took a fever and soon died.

Thus left alone in the world, Andrew, in his eighteenth year, commenced he study of the law, in the winter of 1784, and in about two years received a license. Shortly afterward, he was appointed solicitor of the western district

of North Carolina (including what is now Tennessee), and in 1788, he crossed the mountains to take up his abode there. Settled at Jonesborough, he performed several journeys through the wilderness to the infant settlements on the Cumberland river, and was frequently under arms to repel the attacks of the Indians, and went on several regular expeditions against them. By his gallantry on these occasions he made himself greatly feared by the Indians, who gave him the soubriquets of "Sharp Knife," and "Pointed Arrow," and at the same time became very popular with the settlers.

Mr. Jackson finally determined upon fixing himself permanently in the vicinity of Nashville, and took board with Mrs. Donelson, the widow of Col. John Donelson, whose daughter, Mrs. Rachel Robards, was living with her mother. Her husband was a dissipated character, and a separation finally took place between them. Robards, as it was reported, having obtained a divorce in the courts of Virginia, Mr. Jackson thereupon proceeded to Natchez, where the lady then was, and they were married in the fall of 1791, and returned to Cumberland.

In 1795 he was chosen a delegate to the convention for forming a state constitution. The new state of Tennessee was admitted in the Union on the 1st of June, 1796, and Mr. Jackson was elected its first representative in Congress. The next March he was elected by the legislature of Tennessee to the United States senate, where he remained a year, and then resigned. While in Congress he acted uniformly with the democratic party.

Soon after his resignation as United States senator, Mr. Jackson was appointed judge of the supreme court of the state, which office he filled till 1804, when he resigned, and retired to his plantation near Nashville. He also held the commission of major-general of the militia.

In 1812, upon the breaking out of the war with Great Britain, Jackson, at the head of the local militia of Tennessee, achieved several brilliant victories over the Indians, and in December of the same year, at the head of twenty-five hundred men, was despatched down the Mississippi for the defence of the lower country. The threatened attack, however, did not take place, and the volunteers were marched back to Tennessee and disbanded.

About this time the Indians of the south, having been for some time in communication with the northern tribes, recommenced hostilities in a most ferocious manner—having assaulted and captured Fort Mimms, on the Mississippi, and captured three hundred persons, all of whom, including women and children, were put to death. Immediately upon receipt of the news of this event, the governor of Tennessee called out three thousand five hundred militia, appointing General Jackson to the command. He proceeded at once with his force to the frontiers, and in several bloody engagements completely vanquished the hostile Indians, the principal chiefs coming in and making their submission.

In 1814, upon the resignation of General Harrison, General Jackson was appointed a major-general in the United States army. During this year he proceeded to Alabama and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with the Indians, accurately defining their boundaries and their future relations with the United States.

On the 7th of November, 1814, General Jackson, at the head of three thousand men, on their way to Mobile, captured the city of Pensacola, then a Spanish port, whose governor had violated his neutrality by harboring a British fleet and army. Two days afterward, the enemy having retired, he proceeded to New Orleans, where he arrived on the 1st of December, 1814. It was generally believed that a large British force was in motion, destined to the capture of this important city; and the general made every preparation which his limited means allowed, for its defence—among other things, suspending the writ of *habeas corpus*, and declaring the city under martial law. The British

force made its appearance early in December, and on the 22d the first engagement took place without positive result, at a point about nine miles below the city. On the 28th, the Americans having retired to their entrenchments, four miles below New Orleans, the British commenced a brisk cannonading, which continued without success till the 1st of January. On the 8th, General Pakenham, with the entire British army under his command, numbering twelve thousand men, advanced upon the city, encountering the Americans, about six thousand strong, intrenched behind their cotton bales. The result of this extraordinary conflict is well known. General Pakenham was slain, with twenty-five hundred of his men, while the loss of the Americans was only thirteen. On the 18th the British hastily retired to their ships, and the war was over. On the 22d General Jackson entered the city with his victorious army, and was received with enthusiastic manifestations of public gratitude. A grand *Te Deum* was performed in the cathedral, and General Jackson, after a discourse by Bishop Dubourg, was crowned by that venerable functionary with a wreath of laurel. Subsequently, the general arrested M. Louallier, a member of the legislature, for circulating a report that peace had been established. Application being made, Judge Hall issued a writ of *habeas corpus* in favor of M. Louallier, which was disregarded. Two days after (Feb. 13) official intelligence of the peace was received, and General Jackson, summoned before Judge Hall, was fined a thousand dollars for contempt of court—which sum he paid. About thirty years subsequently it was returned to him by Congress.

The annunciation of the triumphant defence of New Orleans was, in every section of the United States, hailed with acclamation. State legislatures expressed their approbation and thanks to General Jackson, for what he had done. The Congress of the United States did the same, and directed a gold medal to be presented to him, commemorative of this event.

The president, on the resignation of General Thomas Pinckney, in 1815, appointed General Jackson commander-in-chief of the southern division of the United States army. In 1818, he was called to act in conjunction with General Gaines in suppressing the depredations of the Seminole Indians in Florida. In the course of the campaign he took possession of St. Marks, and again of Pensacola, although in the possession of the Spanish. This act portended trouble with Spain, but the speedy cession of Florida to the United States removed all cause. On the close of the campaign he resigned his commission in the army.

In 1821, President Monroe appointed him governor of Florida: and in 1823 he was offered the station of minister to Mexico, which he declined, and the legislature of Tennessee elected him United States senator. In 1824, he was one of the five candidates for president, receiving a larger popular vote than any of his competitors; but failing to obtain a majority, the choice devolved on the house of representatives, and Mr. Adams was elected. The opposition to Mr. Adams's administration having concentrated upon General Jackson, he was again presented as a candidate for the presidency, in 1828, and was elected by a majority of more than two to one over Mr. Adams. Just before leaving his home for Washington to assume the reins of government, he met with a severe bereavement in the death of his estimable wife. In 1832, he was re-elected, and at the close of his second term, retired to his private residence, "the Hermitage," on the Cumberland river, in Tennessee, to pass the remnant of his days as a quiet spectator of public events. The last two years of his life he was infirm of body, but retained his mental faculties undiminished to the hour of his death, which occurred on the 8th of June, 1845, in the seventy-ninth year of his age. His countrymen throughout the United States joined in testimonials of respect to his memory in public obsequies. A colossal equestrian statue of Gen. Jackson, has been erected at Washington to his memory.

The great political measures which agitated the country during Jackson's administration, involving the tariff, the South Carolina nullification, the French indemnity, the rechartering of the United States bank, the removal of the deposits, the Cherokee war, the removals and appointments to office for political causes, engendered the most violent spirit of sectional and party strife, and will long confuse men's judgment of the character and abilities of General Jackson; but all will accord to him the praise of great firmness, energy, decision, and disinterestedness; of remarkable military skill, and ardent patriotism. With regard to his qualifications and services as a statesman, his countrymen have been and are divided in opinion. It is, perhaps, not yet time to speak decisively on this point, but it must be left for the impartial verdict of posterity.

The personal appearance and private character of General Jackson were thus described by his friend and biographer, Mr. Eaton, in 1828: "In the person of General Jackson is perceived nothing of the robust and elegant. He is six feet and an inch high, remarkably straight and spare, and weighs not more than one hundred and forty-five pounds. His conformation appears to disqualify him for hardship; yet, accustomed to it from early life, few are capable of enduring fatigue to the same extent, or with less injury. His dark blue eyes, with brows arched and slightly projecting, possess a marked expression; but when from any cause excited, they sparkle with peculiar lustre and penetration. In his manners he is pleasing—in his address commanding; while his countenance, marked with firmness and decision, beams with a strength and intelligence that strikes at first sight. In his deportment there is nothing repulsive. Easy, affable, and familiar, he is open and accessible to all. Influenced by the belief that merit should constitute the only difference in men, his attention is equally bestowed on honest poverty as on titled consequence. His moral character is without reproach; and by those who know him most intimately he is most esteemed. Benevolence in him is a prominent virtue. He was never known to pass distress without seeking to assist and to relieve it."



The Hermitage—Residence of Andrew Jackson, Tennessee.



DE WITT CLINTON.

THE truly illustrious subject of this sketch was born on the 2d of March, 1769, at Little Britain, his father's residence, in Orange county, New York. His ancestry were distinguished in various ways for their virtues and talents. He entered Columbia college, in the city of New York, in 1784, and was acknowledged to be the best scholar of his class. He is said, indeed, to have manifested at this early age a remarkable quickness of perception, and a vigorous power of intellect, added to a fine talent for composition and extemporaneous debate. How nobly he subsequently redeemed these early pledges of future greatness!

After having been admitted to the legal profession, Mr. Clinton practised at the New York bar, till called from that career by his uncle, George Clinton, then governor of the state, who appointed him his private secretary. In addition to his appointment of secretary to the governor, he was soon honored with the offices of secretary to the board of regents of the university, and of the board of fortifications of New York.

In 1797, Mr. Clinton was elected a member of the house of assembly for the city of New York, and on the succeeding year was chosen a state senator. In 1801, we find him a member of the senate of the United States. In 1803, he was chosen mayor of the city of New York, which office he held till 1807. He was rechosen in 1808, and with the exception of one year retained the place till 1815. It is mentioned of him in this station, that during the period when the city was visited by the pestilence, in the contagiousness of which he fully believed, he was always present at the deliberations of the common council, and rendered his daily attendance at the board of health, of which he was the presiding officer.

During the years 1815 and 1816, Mr. Clinton was but a private citizen. Leaving for a time the political arena, he entered upon that of letters, and greatly distinguished himself in various ways. He held a high rank in many

of the societies for promoting benevolent purposes, and for the diffusion of science. His exertions and influence at this time were of the most direct and sensible benefit to many large classes of society; and to the reputation which he had already acquired as a statesman, he added that of a scholar, a true patriot, and a philanthropist. It is impossible within our narrow limits to enumerate the various societies to which he now belonged, and the many noble and useful actions he performed, but must refer to some of the more elaborate memoirs of which he has been the subject.

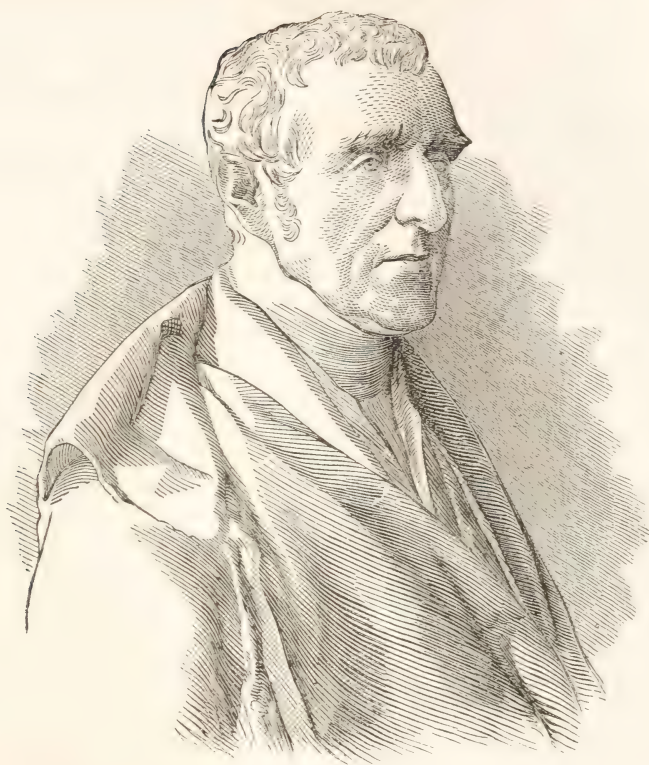
In 1817, Governor Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, having been elected to the office of vice-president of the United States, Mr. Clinton was first called upon by the people of that state to act as their chief magistrate. His term of office expired in 1820, when he was re-elected. In 1823, he voluntarily declined being a candidate at the ensuing election, and retired again to the ranks of private life. In 1825, he was appointed by President Adams minister plenipotentiary to the court of St. James, which post he declined, preferring to remain at home. In 1826, he was once more re-elected, and remained governor till the period of his decease. He also held the highest masonic office in the United States at the time of his death, to which station he was chosen in 1816.

The great monument of Mr. Clinton's fame is the Lake Erie and Champlain canals. Not that the glory of the former work is his alone—he pretended to no such honor; but without his talents, his political influence, and his bold and manly struggle, for this great object, it would not have been undertaken at the time it was. He put his reputation at stake to accomplish the object. No timid, creeping politician would have dared to risk so much. After the canal was decided upon (in 1817), and after the work had been commenced, there were times when his friends grew cold; and some of his coadjutors were dismayed, while his opposers grew insolent, as the clouds thickened; but Clinton never wavered in his opinions, nor relaxed in his efforts, but in fact redoubled his diligence, and went on to examine all the minute details of the work, until its triumphant completion, in 1825.

On Monday, the 11th of February, 1828, after having visited the capitol and performed his usual duties, Governor Clinton returned to his house and retired to his study. He was there suddenly seized with dangerous symptoms of *angina pectoris*—rose—spoke to his son, walked into the hall—returned to his chair in the library—and expired before medical aid could be procured. Seldom have our countrymen heard words more startling and painful than the report which now spread with rapidity through Albany—"Clinton is no more!"

As a philosopher, a statesman, a writer, a scholar, an orator, a delightful companion, a correct citizen, and a pure and honest man, the name of De Witt Clinton will go down to posterity divested of every reproach. "His reputation," says Dr. Hosack, "was not confined to the country he immediately benefited by his services. In the literary circles and in the scientific institutions of Europe, his name was familiarly known as among the most eminent men of his day. It was an evidence of the high estimation in which he was held, that he was elected an honorary member of many of the learned societies of Great Britain and of the continent of Europe, and that he held an extensive correspondence with some of the most distinguished men of the age. He was an honorary member of the Linnæan and the Horticultural Societies of London, and of the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh; and was in habits of correspondence with the late Sir James Edward Smith, the learned president of the first, and with Mr. Knight and Mr. J. Sabine, the able officers of the horticultural institution."

Governor Clinton was twice married, first to Miss Maria Franklin, and, many years after her decease, to Miss Catharine Jones.



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

ARTHUR WELLESLEY, duke of Wellington, the fourth son of the second earl of Mornington, was born at Dangan castle, in the county of Meath, Ireland, May 1, 1769. He received the first part of his education, at Eton school, near London, whence he proceeded to the military college of Angiers, in the department of the Maine and Loire, in France, then directed by Pignerol, the modern Vauban. In 1787, when in his eighteenth year, Arthur Wesley (for that was the form of his name he at first adopted) was gazetted to an ensigncy in the seventy-third regiment, and on the following Christmas-day was promoted to a lieutenancy in the seventy-sixth. In the succeeding month, he changed into the forty-first regiment, and on the 25th of June, was appointed to the twelfth light dragoons. In 1791, he was promoted to a company in the fiftieth foot; and in 1792 he obtained a troop in the eighteenth light dragoons. At the general election in the summer of 1790, he was returned to parliament for the borough of Trim, in the Irish county of Meath, the patronage of which belonged to the house of Mornington. In 1793, Captain Wellesley was gazetted major of the thirty-third foot, and, in about five months afterward, succeeded to the lieutenant-colonelcy of the same. Thus, in five years, in which he had seen no active service, he found himself the actual commander of a veteran regiment.

In the following year, the thirty-third regiment received orders to join the earl of Moira's expedition to the coasts of France, and was actually embarked when contrary orders came, and the vessels sailed for Ostend to reinforce the duke of York. The fate of the war had already been decided when he arrived in the Low Countries; and all that remained to be done was to cover, in the best possible manner, the retreat of the duke of York's army. In this service Lieutenant-Colonel Wellesley, who, as senior officer, commanded three battalions, was twice engaged with the enemy.

Early in the ensuing spring, the thirty-third embarked at Bremen for England. Within four months of their return, Wellesley had reorganized his regiment, and reported it fit for service; and in October, 1795, embarked with it at Southampton for the West Indies, but was driven back by winds and tempests. In April, 1796, the regiment sailed for the East Indies. Wellesley joined it at the cape, having received his colonel's commission, May 3d.

In the spring of 1797, his brother, the earl of Mornington, better known to history as the Marquis Wellesley, was appointed governor-general of India. Shortly after the earl's arrival in India, it was judged necessary to make war upon Tippoo Sultan, who, encouraged by promises of French aid and the presence of French officers in his army, was intriguing against the British. An expedition against Seringapatam, the supposed invulnerable capital of the Mysore territory, was therefore organized under General Harris, and the Nizam's contingent, with which the thirty-third was incorporated, was placed under Colonel Wellesley. The march to the Mysore capital was difficult, and interrupted by frequent collisions with the sultan's troops. At Mallavelly, Wellesley's detachment had to accept battle with Tippoo, who, however, continued his retreat to Seringapatam, after suffering a rapid defeat. On April 3, the march was completed by the entire force, and operations at once commenced. On the 5th, Colonel Wellesley was ordered to attack, with the thirty-third and two native regiments, a small wood, called the Sultan Pettah Tope, by night. The darkness was intense, the *terram* unknown, and intersected with watercourses. The troops and their commander lost their way, and it was necessary to abandon the attempt. Twelve men of the thirty-third were cut off, carried to Seringapatam, and, by Tippoo's orders, barbarously murdered. Such a disaster might have befallen the bravest and most experienced officer; nevertheless, Wellesley probably owed it to his powerful connections, that it did not become a barrier to his future employment in undertakings of great responsibility. The next day he renewed the attempt and was completely successful. On May 4th, Seringapatam was stormed, upon which occasion Colonel Wellesley commanded the reserve in the trenches. Plunder began almost before the conquest was complete, and Colonel Wellesley marched his reserve into town to restore order. It fell to his lot, in company with Sir David Baird, to discover and recognise Tippoo under the heaps of dead. He was at once appointed commander and governor of Seringapatam, and immediately commenced his duties by repressing rapine and punishing oppression, whether by officers or men, in that stern spirit of discipline which always distinguished his command. As soon as the government and territory of Mysore had been settled, he was appointed to administer the affairs of the whole district in the name of the puppet-prince, retaining his command in Seringapatam.

In the beginning of September, 1800, he left Seringapatam for a short time to arrest the course of Dhoondiah Waugh, a Mahratta freebooter, who had collected about three thousand mounted followers, and dubbed himself "King of the Two Worlds." He speedily came up with this force at Conaghall, and on the 10th of the same month routed the marauders, and slew their commander. In 1801, he left Seringapatam a second time for Trincomalee, being ordered to

join a force assembled there to act against the Mauritius. Just then, he received an order from England to sail with three thousand men from Bombay for Egypt, and decided to comply with the latter of these conflicting injunctions, when an attack of fever laid him completely aside; and on his recovery he was restored to the command of the Mysore territory, which he held until he left India.

In April, 1802, Colonel Wellesley was raised by his brother, the governor-general, to the rank of major-general, an occurrence deserving of notice, as the first of his promotions which can be connected in any way with his merits. In the same year he was called to a far greater command than had yet been confided to him. The Mahratta war, the object of which was to break the power of Scindiah, Holkar, and the rajah of Berar, which was becoming dangerous to British interests, was resolved. General Wellesley, upon whom the civil and military authority had been conferred in the provinces of the Nizam and the Mahratta states, took the field against Scindiah and his allies, August 6, 1803. Negotiations proving fruitless, Wellesley marched upon the Pettah and fort of Ahmednuggur (the latter being the strongest in the peninsula), and which he reached unopposed on the 8th of August. The fort was carried by escalade, three hundred men having succeeded in mounting a bastion, when a cannon-ball broke the last ladder, and thus cut off all communication with their comrades. They were, however, a gallant band, and drove all before them till they reached one of the gates, which they opened. Having thus let in the rest of the storming party, the capture of the place was immediately effected. The loss amounted to one hundred and forty men. On August 29, 1803, the English army took peaceful possession of Aurungabad, a city of great extent and once of truly eastern magnificence. On September 29, Col. Stevenson, who in the meantime had stormed the fort of Jaulna, had an interview with General Wellesley, and a joint attack upon the enemy, who was encamped at Boherdun, two marches distance, was decided upon. The engagement which followed was the famous field of Assaye, where General Wellesley met the Mahratta army of thirty thousand horse, and twenty thousand infantry, supported by one hundred guns, with only one thousand six hundred cavalry, six thousand four hundred infantry, and seventeen guns, and totally defeated it. After this brilliant engagement, General Wellesley was compelled to remain in the neighborhood, from the difficulty of finding a place of security for his wounded; but Colonel Stevenson was despatched to harass the rest of Scindiah's army, and to take Asseerghur and Burhampoor, all of which services he performed in a most satisfactory manner. Scindiah soon became tired of the war, and after some weeks more had been spent in manœuvres, without coming again to blows, he sent a vakeel to make his peace with the English government. General Wellesley agreed to an armistice with him, but refused to suspend hostilities against the rajah of Berar. Scindiah, however, did not act in pursuance of the stipulation into which he had entered, namely, that he should remove his troops twenty coss to the east of Ellichpore; and accordingly, on November 28, General Wellesley attacked him at the village of Argaum, routing his troops with immense slaughter, and capturing thirty-eight pieces of cannon, all his ammunition, many elephants and camels, and much baggage. On the 12th of the ensuing month, General Wellesley laid siege on Gawilghur, an important fortress, defended by strong works and a large number of soldiers, which was taken without difficulty. This brought the Mahratta chieftains to reason. The rajah of Berar urgently begged for a separate peace, which was concluded in two days afterward, on terms highly honorable and advantageous to the East India company. Scindiah soon followed in the steps of his late ally, and the war was thus brought to a brilliant and successful termination.

This may be said to have completed his Indian career; for, although it was not until March 9, 1805, that he published a notification to the troops that his resignation of the command he had held in the Deccan had been accepted, yet no events occurred, save the reception of his testimonials, that need be here noticed. He was complimented by an order in council of the governor-general and the court of East Indian directors, and a sword was presented to him by the inhabitants of Calcutta, where, as indeed throughout the British possessions in India, the most unbounded joy was caused by the manner in which the war had been terminated. The thanks of parliament were also given to the governor-general and to the commanders, officers, and soldiers, who had served in the campaign. Wellesley was created an extra knight companion of the bath, his investiture being directed by the king to take place without waiting for a vacancy. Many addresses were presented to him by various public bodies in India, and a splendid gold vase, valued at two thousand guineas, was given to him with a flattering address, by the officers of his division of the Indian army. Sir Arthur embarked for England soon after, and on his arrival he was appointed to the command of the troops at Hastings. On April 10, 1806, he married Catherine, third daughter of the second earl of Longford.

Shortly after his return to England, he was ordered to join the earl of Cathcart and Gen. Don, who were proceeding with a British force to effect a junction with the allied Austrian and Russian armies in what they hoped was to be a march to Paris. Cathcart found, on his arrival, that the battle of Austerlitz had dissipated these dreams, and that Augereau was advancing against him with forty thousand men. He summoned a council of war, in which the newly-arrived Indian general was the youngest member. All the old generals were for immediate return. Wellesley was for remaining and beating the enemy, which, he maintained, was a practicable feat, involving a minimum of risk, since their communications with the sea were secure. His advice was rejected, with pity for his rashness and inexperience; and he shortly after returned to England. He again took his seat in the house of commons as member for Newport, Hampshire, and was for some time engaged in an unpleasant contest with a Mr. Paull, who had lately returned to England, and came forward in parliament as the accuser of the marquis of Wellesley and his brother.

In 1807, he accepted the Irish secretaryship, an office which he discharged in the spirit of a conquering soldier. In taking office, Sir Arthur had stipulated that his ministerial duties should not interfere with his professional; and accordingly, in the summer of 1807, he was once more employed on active service. Denmark, a state much too weak to maintain its independence if attacked by any of the great powers then at war, had been permitted to remain in a state of armed but strict neutrality. Under the pretence that this had been violated by the French, England fitted out an expedition against Copenhagen, in which Sir Arthur Wellesley held a distinguished post. The authorities of Copenhagen, though closely pressed by sea and land, obstinately refused to make terms till September 5, when the conflagration of the city made them accept an armistice. The fleet, which numbered sixteen sail-of-the-line, nine frigates, fourteen sloops, and many smaller vessels, was surrendered. The ships, together with ninety transports, were filled with naval stores, and brought to England as prizes of war. The next few months were occupied by Sir Arthur in the discharge of ministerial duties in Ireland.

The English government looking upon Spain as safe ground on which to continue the struggle against the principles of the French revolution, resolved to send Sir Arthur Wellesley with an auxiliary force to the peninsula. He arrived at Corunna, July 20, 1808, but was badly received by the junta, which,

infatuated by Dupont's foolish surrender of Baylen, fancied itself sufficiently powerful to cope with the resources of Bonaparte. Sir Arthur immediately left for the Tagus, and landed at Mondego bay, August 3, 1808. General Spencer joined him there, their united forces amounting to twenty thousand men. He at once begun a rapid march along the seacoast toward the capital of Portugal, without waiting for Sir John Moore, his superior officer. A fight took place at Rolica, where General Laborde unsuccessfully endeavored to oppose his advance. Wellesley was pushing on to confront Junot, who had left Lisbon for the purpose of driving the English into the sea, when he learned from England that Sir Harry Burrard would immediately arrive to supersede him in the command. Sir Harry arrived just as Wellesley had planned the victory of Vimeiro, saw it won, and prevented its being followed by the surrender of Lisbon, which must have ensued had Junot's retreat been cut off. The convention of Cintra followed, to which Wellington's assent was required and reluctantly yielded. After this, Wellesley returned to England, and resumed his duties as Irish secretary. Sir John Moore's disastrous campaign followed.

Another army was organized in 1809; and Wellesley, resigning his secretaryship and making stipulations against his own supercession, took its command, and arrived at Lisbon April 22, 1809. Wellesley found Soult secure at Douro, with twenty-five thousand men, guarded by the river, whose bridges had been destroyed and boats secured. By an understanding with the inhabitants, and with some boats that had escaped the French, he crossed the river and took the town. Soult sacrificed his cannon, baggage, and military chest, and retreated across the mountains to Orense, in Galicia, with a loss of seven thousand men. Marshal Victor, upon hearing of this disaster, joined King Joseph and Sebastiani, and advanced upon the British. On June 27, the battle of Talavera was fought, in which the French, after a terrific struggle, were driven over the Abenhe. In this action the French had fifty-five thousand and the allied army sixty thousand men. Soult, meanwhile, had reorganized his forces, and was coming to fall on the rear of the British army with thirty thousand men. Wellesley, therefore, withdrew his forces into Portugal. For this battle, and the passage of the Douro, Sir Arthur received, on the 20th of August, the honor of a peerage, by the title of Baron Douro and Viscount Wellington. Parliament voted him thanks and a pension of two thousand pounds a year.

The winter of 1809-'10 was passed in forming plans for the defence of Portugal. The great problem of strategists at that period was the defence of Portugal against an overwhelming force. Lord Wellington discerned a mode in which the object could be attained, and he planned the celebrated lines of Torres Vedras. The semicircle of rising ground between the Tagus and the sea were so strongly fortified as to be rendered impassable to a foe of any conceivable strength; and the whole peninsula upon which Lisbon stands was thus completely isolated and rendered perfectly secure from aggression. The defences consisted of ten separate fortifications, mounting four hundred and forty-four guns. They formed two lines, the outer one (which was nearly thirty miles in extent) having one hundred guns, and the inner one (about eight miles within) two hundred guns, the remainder being disposed on redoubts along the shores and the river. In addition to the fortifications erected, mountains were scarped, and rivers obstructed, in order to render the country swampy and impassable; trenches were dug, from which concealed infantry might pour withering volleys on the enemy; roads were blocked up outside the lines, and new ones formed inside, so as to make the interior communications perfect; bridges were mined, ready for explosion; and telegraphs were erected at Torres Vedras and other proper stations. These were placed under

the direction of seamen from the fleet which lay in the Tagus. The French, under King Joseph and Soult, having reconquered Andalusia, Massena, in June, 1810, advanced to drive the British out of Portugal. His force amounted to forty-five thousand men, to whom Wellington could oppose but thirty thousand. Wellington slowly retired, halting only once, at Busaco, to give battle to the unsuspecting enemy, and on the 10th entered the lines of Torres Vedras. Massena halted when he descried the bulwark which the English had raised, and, having been led into a desolated country, where he was unable to find provisions for his army, retreated into Spain. In 1811, the terrible battles of Fuentes d'Onoro and Albuera were fought, when Wellington was victorious. Massena was recalled, and Marmont placed in his stead, who, with an army of sixty thousand men, met Wellington with his forces divided, and compelled him to raise the siege of Badajoz and retreat into Portugal.

In 1812, while the French were in winter-quarters, Wellington managed to surprise and take Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz. In the beginning of July, the opposing armies again approached each other on the Tormes, near Salamanca. After some time had been spent in manœuvring on both sides, Wellington, unable, from want of supplies, longer to keep the field, retired by the road to Ciudad Rodrigo. Marmont sent General Thomière to turn the British left, and so cut off the retreat by Ciudad Rodrigo. Wellington took advantage of this division of the enemy's force, and attacked Marmont's weakened army. The battle of Salamanca was then fought. The French army was obliged to retreat, having lost between fourteen and fifteen thousand men, in slain, wounded, and prisoners. On the 12th of August following (1812), the British general made his triumphal entry into Madrid, and was immediately appointed generalissimo of the Spanish armies. On the 18th of the same month he was created marquis of Wellington by the prince-regent. Determined to prevent, if possible, the junction of Soult and Suchet with Joseph Bonaparte, Lord Wellington issued a spirited proclamation to the people of Madrid, and, leaving the capital, he marched with a strong corps against General Clausel. On the 7th of September he reached the city of Valladolid, which Clausel, however, had left on the preceding day. The French general made an admirable retrograde movement, and on the 16th took up a strong position at Celladad el Camino. The next day, twelve thousand Spaniards came up, and Wellington now offered battle. Clausel, however, retreated through Burgos, where he was joined by Caffarelli, to Briviesca. On the 19th, Lord Wellington invested the castle, which was a fortress of immense strength, and was defended by two thousand five hundred picked men, under General Dubreton. After a loss of three thousand men and thirty days, he was obliged, on October 22, to relinquish the attempt. On October 3, Souham assumed the command of the French army, which now comprised ninety-five thousand men, and commenced a series of offensive movements. Wellington was compelled to retreat into Portugal with considerable loss. On November 3, the French armies of the south and centre united, and next day re-entered Madrid.

The British government, encouraged by the disasters of Napoleon in Russia, sent over reinforcement after reinforcement; and when Lord Wellington recommenced active operations, he was the commander of two hundred thousand men, the finest force ever directed by an English general. The Spanish armies had been, likewise, greatly improved; and the guerillas, who had always been the most useful native force Spain was able to bring into the field, were placed at Lord Wellington's disposal, and thus promised to be of still greater efficiency. Lord Wellington put his troops in motion, and effected a junction with the Anglo-Portuguese, the Estramaduran, and the Gallician armies, on the Douro. All was completed by June 15, 1813. The result of

this combination was to present a mass of ninety thousand men, against whom the French could collect at no point more than two thirds of that number. The communications of the French generals being cut off, they had only one resource, to retreat toward the Pyrenees. Madrid was abandoned, and Joseph retired to Vittoria, whence, greatly inferior in number, and encumbered by the Spaniards and their families, who had clung to his cause, he was defeated by Wellington, with the loss of one thousand in prisoners, four thousand in killed and wounded, and an immense amount of stores, ammunition, and guns, besides five millions five hundred thousand dollars in specie, Joseph's sword, and Marshal Jourdan's bâton. Leaving garrisons in Pamplona and San Sebastian, which were immediately blockaded, Joseph retired into France; so that, excepting the army in Catalonia, the French had been driven from the peninsula.

On January 1, 1813, Wellington had been gazetted to the colonelcy of the royal regiment of horse-guards, *vice* the duke of Northumberland, who had resigned; and, on March 4, he was elected a knight of the garter. On July 3 the prince-regent despatched him a most flattering autograph letter, in which he said: "You have sent me, among the trophies of your unrivalled fame, the staff of a French marshal, and I send you, in return, that of England." On the 22d of the same month, the cortes proposed, and the regency offered him, the fine estate of Soto de Roma, in Granada, "in the name of the Spanish nation, and in testimony of its sincere gratitude." On July 1, Soult became Napoleon's lieutenant, with power to remove Joseph, if he thought necessary. On July 25, San Sebastian was attacked; on the 28th, the battle of Sorauren was won; on August 31, after three hours' fighting, during which three thousand of the British army fell, San Sebastian was taken. On October 7, Wellington followed Soult across the Bidassoa, and entered France. Bayonne was invested, and the battle of Orthès opened to Beresford the road to Bordeaux. The battle of Toulouse, which terminated Wellington's seventh peninsular campaign, was fought after Napoleon had abdicated.

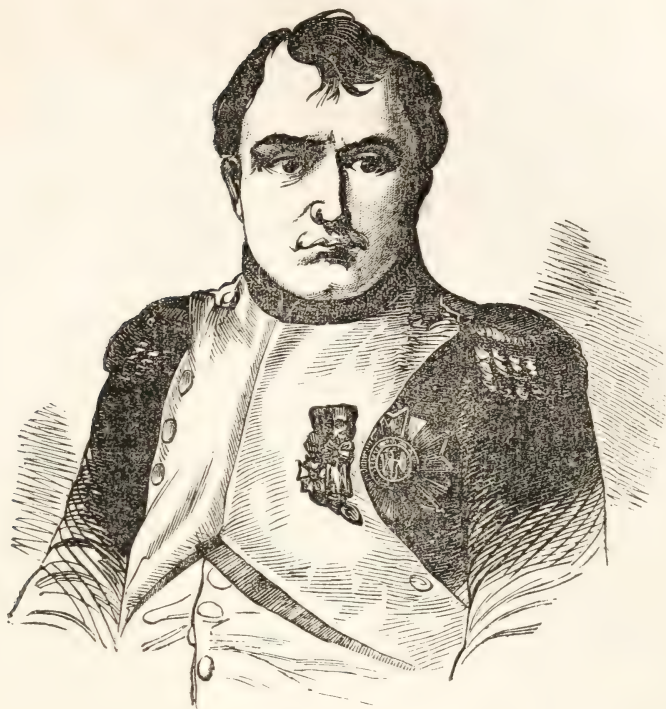
Wellington was named ambassador to the court of France, and reached Paris on May 4, 1814. From Paris he proceeded to Madrid, and thence to Bordeaux, where he embarked for England, and landed at Dover on the 23d of June. The following morning he set out for Portsmouth, where the allied sovereigns were to witness a grand review. On the 28th he took his seat in the house of lords for the first time. On July 30 the peace of Paris was concluded. In May the prince-regent had recommended that an annuity be granted to him, to support the title of duke which had just been conferred on him, and as a lasting testimonial of the nation's gratitude and munificence. parliament accordingly voted the sum of four hundred thousand pounds.

Wellington was at Vienda, when the return of Napoleon from Elba called him to Belgium to take the command of the Anglo-Batavian army. After the battle of Quatre-Bras, on June 16, 1815, between the Anglo-Batavian and a part of the French army, under Ney, Wellington, learning the defeat of Blücher at Ligny, retreated on Brussels, and on the evening of the 17th took a position in front of the village of Mont St. Jean. Here he arranged with Blücher, who had retreated to Wavre, that either party who was attacked by Napoleon was to resist to the last, and that the other was to manœuvre so as to fall upon his flank. On the same evening, the emperor took up his position at La Belle Alliance, a farm a little in advance of Planchenois. The memorable battle of Waterloo followed on the 18th. The details of that engagement are the province of history: suffice it to say, that the troops under Wellington were engaged in resisting the attacks of the veterans of Napoleon from eleven o'clock in the morning till near seven in the evening, when, by the timely arrival of the Prussian troops under Bulow and Blücher, the French were completely routed,

and the fate of Napoleon was sealed. Paris capitulated to Wellington and Blücher on July 3, 1815. The English field-marshal was appointed to command the allied army of observation; and on the final evacuation of France, November 1, 1818, he returned to England. Another two hundred thousand pounds had been granted him by parliament in 1815. The remainder of his career belongs to civil history.

In December, 1818, he entered Lord Liverpool's cabinet as master-general of the ordnance. In 1826, he went to St. Petersburg on a special embassy. In 1827, he was appointed, with Sir Robert Peel and other leading members of parliament, one of the commissioners of Indian affairs. The duke of York dying on January 5, the duke of Wellington was appointed, on the 24th, his successor as commander-in-chief and colonel of the first grenadier guards. On March 10, he was installed in the office of high-constable of the Tower, and, at the same time, *custos rotulorum* of the Tower Hamlets. Lord Liverpool having died on February 17, the king nominated Mr. Canning as his successor. Upon this, the duke of Wellington (and six others of the principal members of the old cabinet) retired, resigning also the command of the army. Mr. Canning died in August and was succeeded by Lord Goderich, and the duke accepted once more the command of the army, but without a seat in the cabinet. Lord Goderich soon resigned office, and the duke of Wellington was instructed to frame a cabinet, at the same time resigning his command of the army. In 1828, he carried the repeal of the test and corporation acts, and in 1829 the catholic emancipation bill, though he had at first opposed this measure in accordance with his conservative principles of clinging to old systems as long as they could be maintained, and then accepting the new. On the breaking out of the French revolution came a demand for reform in England; this he refused, the ministry were defeated, and he resigned the premiership in October, 1830. The passage of the reform-bill, in 1832, terminated his active political life, although he held for a short time the post of secretary of foreign affairs, in Sir Robert Peel's cabinet in 1834, and again in 1841 was in the cabinet without office, and supported him in the repeal of the corn-laws. In 1842 he was once more appointed to the command of the army, which post he held at the time of his decease. He died suddenly, after a succession of fits, on the 14th of September, 1852, at the age of eighty-three years.

The year 1769 will be long remembered as the one which gave birth to two mighty combatants—Napoleon and Wellington. As the representatives of two great ideas, conservatism and progress, their stupendous struggle has no parallel in either ancient or modern times. It is said that Wellington never wrote a despatch in which the word *duty* did not occur, and that Napoleon never wrote one in which the word *glory* was wanting. That was the difference between the two men, and between the two countries to which they belonged. As a mere general, the duke of Wellington was immeasurably the inferior of Napoleon. Napoleon displayed more genius in any one campaign than Wellington did in his whole life. But the inflexible man of *DUTY* triumphed, at length, over the brilliant man of *GLORY*. The duke, however, was admirably fitted by nature to command an English army, as was his great antagonist to lead the soldiers of France. Brief and plain in speech, vigorous in enforcing obedience, doing equal justice to all ranks, his soldiers knew what to expect from him, and could govern their conduct accordingly. He was a hard, tough, persistent, indefatigable man, of incorruptible fidelity, with a clear, sagacious, and straightforward intellect. Truth and duty were his guiding principles; and, in the exercise of these, he was well named "The Iron Duke." Besides the numerous honors bestowed on him in England, he received twenty-three distinctive titles from the sovereigns of Europe.



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, emperor of the French, king of Italy, &c., was born at Ajaccio, in the island of Corsica, August 15, 1769. His father, Charles Bonaparte, was an advocate of considerable reputation, and his mother, whose maiden name was Marie Letitia Ramoline, was well descended, remarkable for beauty, strong-minded, and accomplished. Napoleon was their second child, Joseph, afterward king of Naples and of Spain, being his senior. He was educated at the military school of Brienne, in France, from 1779 to 1784. His conduct there was unexceptionable. He seems to have cultivated mathematics more than any other branch of study. He was fond of the history of great men, and Plutarch appears to have been his favorite author, as he is with most young persons of an animated character. For languages he manifested little taste. He made himself well acquainted with the French classics. From the military school at Brienne he went with high recommendations to that of Paris. In 1786 he commenced his military career, being appointed in that year second lieutenant in the regiment of artillery La Fère, after a successful examination, one year after the death of his father. While at the school in Paris, young Bonaparte expressed a decided dislike of the discipline and mode of living there, which he thought by no means fitted to prepare the pupils for the privations of a military life.

Napoleon, then twenty years of age, was at Paris at the epoch of the 10th of August, 1789. In September he returned to Corsica. The celebrated Corsican patriot, Paoli, formerly a lieutenant-general in the service of France, had meanwhile been proscribed, with twenty other generals, as a traitor, and a price

set on his head. In May, 1793, Paoli raised the standard of revolt to secure his own safety, and threw off the yoke of the convention. He assembled a consulta of the Corsican malcontents. Bonaparte openly opposed the views of Paoli, and a war broke out between the adherents of that leader and those of France. Many excesses were committed, and Paoli went so far as to make attempts upon the persons of young Bonaparte and his family. But Bonaparte succeeded in conducting them safely to France, where they retired to La Vallette, near Toulon, and, at a later period, to Marseilles. In the same vessel with the Bonapartes were the commissioners of the convention and the French troops. It was the persuasion of Joseph Bonaparte, one of the members of the departmental administration at the time of Paoli's revolution, that engaged his family in the French cause, and thus had an important influence on the future career of his brother.

Napoleon proceeded to Nice, to join the fourth regiment of artillery, in which he had been made captain. This was in the year 1793, when the mountain party of the French convention developed its energies by an unexampled rapidity, by an equally unexampled system; and, finding no foundation for a rational liberty on the first emersion of the country from the corruption and tyranny of centuries, strove to save it by terrorism. The evident talents of the young officer commended him to the leaders of the convention. He was present at the affair of Lyons, and soon after, having obtained the chief command of the besieging batteries before Toulon, contributed greatly by his activity and courage in expelling the English and royalists from that city. For his important services on this occasion he was made a general of brigade in 1794. The same year he defended the convention against the revolt of the sections of Paris, whose greatly superior forces he defeated and dispersed with a few battalions of regular troops, and a small park of artillery hastily brought from Fontainebleau, and judiciously placed in the avenues leading to the halls of the convention.

In March, 1796, Napoleon married Josephine;* and, partly through her in-

* JOSEPHINE, empress of France and queen of Italy, was born at Martinique, one of the West India islands belonging to France, in the year 1763, and bore the name from her parents of ROSE TASCHER DE LA PAGERIE. While very young, she was taken by her father to France, to be the bride of the viscount de Beauharnois—a marriage having been arranged by the two families when the marquis Beauharnois was governor-general of the Antilles. They were accordingly married; and, in the enjoyment of each other's society, they lived beloved and respected, while Josephine became the mother of two children, Eugene and Hortense (the former of whom became a distinguished general and viceroy of Italy under Napoleon, and the latter the wife of Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland, and consequently mother to Emperor Louis Napoleon). Prompted by filial attachment, she went, in 1787, to Martinique, to attend upon her mother in sickness, and having taken her daughter with her, she remained in the island three years. The sudden rising of the colony, however, obliged her to quit it for France, with such haste, as not to allow of her taking leave of her parent. After effecting her escape, and surmounting numerous obstacles, Madame Beauharnois began to experience the horrors of the French Revolution; and soon saw her husband, who had used every exertion at the head of the French army on the Rhine, dragged to a prison, and thence to the scaffold. She was also included in the list of proscription; but the death of her husband reduced her to such a state, that she could not be removed, and to this circumstance she owed her deliverance. Robespierre at length perished, and the viscountess was delivered from prison by Tallien, who was never forgotten by her, nor by Eugene, from whom he received a considerable pension till his death. Josephine was indebted to Barras for the restoration of a part of the property of her husband; and at his house, after the 13th Vendémiaire, she met General Bonaparte, who was desirous of seeing her, in consequence of her son Eugene, then fifteen years old, presenting himself before the general, to solicit that the sword which had belonged to his father might be given to him. Bonaparte from the first was favorably impressed toward the widow; and his attachment strengthening at every succeeding interview, he married her, in 1796. From that day it became her practice to encourage him through dangers, and moderate his feelings in the hour of victory. When her husband was raised to the consulate, her beneficent disposition displayed itself in a thousand ways: to her many emigrants owed their restoration; she encouraged the arts, and rewarded industry; her life, in short, was one continued act of benevolence toward her fellow-creatures; so that Bonaparte frequently observed to her, "I can win battles, but you win hearts." Her great mind looked to the glory of France, and the fame of her husband, as the two most desirable objects. After Napoleon became emperor, a divorce was a subject to which his friends advised him, but which he at first declined. Josephine had been crowned empress of France at Paris, and queen of Italy at Milan. When Napoleon became desirous of marrying a princess, and she was made acquainted with the wishes of the nation regarding a successor, she nobly resolved to sacrifice her pri-

fluence, he was now appointed to the command of the army of Italy. In bestowing on him this important command, the convention informed him that they could give him troops, but neither money nor supplies for the army. "Give me men enough," replied the young general, "and I will answer for the result." Some of the members venturing to remind him of his youth on assuming so important a trust, he instantly replied, "In one year I shall be old or dead!" In three days after his marriage, he set out for Nice; and taking the command of an army of sixty thousand men, half armed and in want of every necessary, he speedily defeated the troops of the king of Piedmont, detached him from the Austrian alliance, and dictated terms of peace, in his own name, highly advantageous to France. Having despatched a courier, with a copy of the treaty to the directory at Paris, Napoleon with his legions now swept like a torrent down the Alps, and entered the fertile plains of Lombardy. With far inferior forces, he outmanœuvred the Austrians, gained many victories, and on the 10th of May made "the terrible passage of the bridge of Lodi" at the head of his grenadiers, amid a perfect storm of grape-shot, and routed the Austrians with great slaughter. This daring feat caused the French soldiers to give their commander the soubriquet of "the Little Corporal." His victories of Lonado, Castiglione, Reverado, Bassano, Sangiorgio, and Arcola, closed 1796. The following year, Napoleon having taken Mantua and other strongholds, Pope Pius VII. sued for peace. The republic of Venice, however, raised an army of sixty thousand men, refused the French alliance, and demanded neutrality. This was granted, coupled with a statement of the consequences which would follow a breach of faith on the part of the Venetians. Napoleon now resolved to march directly upon Vienna, and thus bring the war to a speedy close. Accordingly, leaving a garrison of ten thousand men in Italy, he pursued the retreating Austrians, overtook and signally defeated them at Tagliamento and in

vate feelings on the altar of France; and giving the archduchess, Maria Louisa, credit for all the estimable qualities which she knew were requisite to the happiness of Napoleon, she consented to the marriage. She, however, would not follow the wishes of her children, who were anxious that she should quit France; but retired to her beautiful seat of Malmaison, with the title of empress-queen-dowager. After visiting her daughter-in-law, the vice-queen of Italy, she returned to the former seat of her happiness, and pursued her taste for botany. But however complacently she might regard Napoleon's marriage with Maria Louisa, Josephine felt that the associations connected with Malmaison were too painful for her to bear, and for a time she retired to a beautiful seat at Navarre, a present from Napoleon, situated about thirty miles from Paris, where, with her annuity of two hundred thousand dollars, bestowed from the time of her divorce, she exercised her unbounded love of charity, and was everywhere called "the friend of the poor." One day, having given a large sum to a distressed woman, the latter ran after her, begging to know the name of her benefactress. The reply was simple and touching: "I am poor Josephine!" She was doomed to see the destruction of that throne on which she had once sat; Napoleon's exile to Elba drew from her expressions of the most poignant regret. The allied sovereigns treated her with the most respectful distinction. The emperor Alexander, through whose urgent solicitations she had again taken up her residence at Malmaison, sent his physician, and visited her often in person, repeatedly promising her protection to her children; but her health rapidly declined, and a sudden inflammation of the throat terminated her life on the 29th of May, 1814, at the age of fifty-one.—The dignified and noble traits of Josephine's character gave her a more controlling influence over the strong will of Napoleon than was possessed by any other mind; he often consulted her in matters of state, and was frequently guided by her counsels. The correspondence between them after their divorce, and which was continued until the latest hour of her life, shows that no estrangement followed the act; Napoleon visited her frequently, and in his campaigns she was the first to be apprized of their results. The attachment she bore to him constituted the chief happiness of her existence. Napoleon has left on record his estimation of her character in the following words: "Political motives induced me to divorce Josephine, whom I most tenderly loved. She, poor woman, fortunately for herself, died in time to prevent her from witnessing the last of my misfortunes. After her forcible separation from me, she avowed, in most feeling terms, her ardent desire to share with me my exile [to Elba], and extolled, with many tears, both myself and my conduct to her. The English have represented me as a monster of cruelty. Is this the result of the conduct of a merciless, unfeeling tyrant? A man is known by his treatment of his wife, of his friends, and of those under him. . . . Josephine was the most graceful lady and the best woman in France. I never saw her act indecently during the whole time we lived together. She possessed a perfect knowledge of the different shades of my character, and evinced the most exquisite tact in turning this knowledge to the best account. . . . A son by Josephine would have made me happy, and would have secured the succession of my dynasty. The French would have loved him very much better than they could the son of Maria Louisa, and I never would have put my foot on that abyss, covered with flowers, which was my ruin. Let no one, after this, rely upon the wisdom of human combinations; let no one venture to presume, before its close, upon the happiness or misery of life!"

several other engagements; and forcing them through the gorges of the Alps, routed the archduke Charles (brother of the emperor), and sent him with his flying columns along the great road to Vienna. Already was the city filled with consternation: the royal family hastily embarked on the Danube, among whom was the archduchess Maria Louisa, then a child of six years, fleeing in terror from that dread man who thirteen years later was to lead her to the altar. The French army having approached within thirty miles of the capital, a truce was agreed upon, and negotiations for peace commenced, Napoleon being seated upon one side of a long table, and four Austrian commissioners on the other. By this treaty (of Campo Formio) the boundary of France was extended to the Rhine, and the various changes of Napoleon in Italy recognised, while Austria was allowed to exercise sovereignty over a portion of the Venetian provinces. During the negotiation, the Austrian commissioners assumed a menacing tone; upon which Napoleon rose, seized a beautiful porcelain vase from a sideboard, and exclaimed vehemently: "Gentlemen, the truce is at an end—it is broken already. . . . But, remember, that in three months I will break your monarchy in pieces as I now break this bit of porcelain!" Saying this, he dashed the vase in fragments on the floor; then, mounting his horse, spurred to his headquarters, and sent a despatch to Charles, announcing that hostilities would recommence in twenty-four hours. The terrified commissioners at once yielded, and the treaty was signed.

Napoleon now hurried back to chastise the Venetians, who, taking advantage of his absence, together with false reports of his defeat, had incited insurrections, and massacred many soldiers of the French garrison. The senate, in great fear, sent enormous sums to the directory at Paris, and despatched three commissioners to Napoleon to sue for mercy, but without avail. He sternly rebuked them, exclaiming, "Not for the wealth of all Peru would I overlook your crimes. You have broken your word; you have murdered my children. Go! the lion of St. Mark must lick the dust!" He thereupon entered the city and overthrew the Venetian republic. Having humbled the Austrians, reduced all Italy to obedience, and sent vast treasures of art to embellish Paris, Napoleon himself now repaired in triumph to the directory. Before leaving Italy, the emperor of Austria offered him a principality containing two hundred thousand inhabitants, but Napoleon declined the alluring bait, replying that whatever he received, must be at the hands of the French people.

Thus disengaged, a new theatre for the display of his genius presented itself. With a large fleet, and forty thousand troops on board the transports, he set sail for the intended conquest of Egypt in May, 1798. On his way thither he took Malta; and on the 22d of September we find him celebrating the battle of the Pyramids at Grand Cairo, but his progress was checked by the British under Sir Sidney Smith at St. John d'Acre. The various reverses which the French army continued to meet with, coupled with the fact that his presence seemed necessary at home, induced Bonaparte to embark secretly for France, accompanied by a few officers wholly devoted to him, and to leave his brave but shattered army to the care of General Kleber.

Napoleon landed at Frejus, in October, 1799; hastened to Paris; overthrew the directorial government; was appointed one of the three consuls for the administration of the government (his colleagues being the abbé Sieyes and Roger Ducos, who, however, were mere ciphers), and entered upon his duties November 17. On the 15th of December he was appointed consul for ten years, having two colleagues with little authority. Having restored peace in La Vendée, Napoleon now led a powerful army over the Alps; beat the Austrians at Ramano and Montebello, and fought the celebrated battle of Marengo (June, 1800). By these decisive victories, he once more became master of the whole of Italy, which, during his absence in Egypt, had been overrun by

the allied Austrian and Russian armies under Suwarrow. A peace with Austria followed these successes; and, soon after, the preliminaries of a treaty were negotiated with England. On the 2d of August, 1802, he was elected, by a vote of the people, consul for life.

On the 29th of May, 1804, Napoleon was raised to the imperial dignity; and in December was crowned, with his empress Josephine, by Pope Pius VIII. Here we must notice an incident too striking to be overlooked. As soon as the holy pontiff had blessed the crown, the emperor, without waiting for the remainder of the ceremony, eagerly seized it, and putting it first upon his own head, afterward placed it on the head of Josephine.

Napoleon now seriously meditated the invasion of England, assembling a numerous flotilla, and collecting two hundred thousand troops, which were encamped in the neighborhood of Boulogne, ostensibly for that purpose; but Austria and Russia appearing in arms against him, and the battle of Trafalgar having nearly annihilated the French navy, he abandoned the design, and, leaving the English cabinet in doubt as to his next movement, marched his troops with surprising celerity to the banks of the Danube. Having won the battles of Wertingen, Gurtsburgh, Memmingen, Elchingen, and captured the fortress of Ulm, with Mack's entire force of forty thousand men, on the 11th of November, 1805, the French army entered Vienna: the memorable battle of Austerlitz took place on the 2d of December, resulting in the overwhelming defeat of the united Austrian and Russian armies, under the very eyes of their respective emperors. The charges of the opposing squadrons of cavalry in this celebrated action, numbering some thirty thousand on each side, are represented as the most imposing in military annals. The humiliating treaty of Presburg followed this great battle.

This year (1806) may be regarded as the era of king-making. New dynasties were created by Napoleon, and princes promoted or transferred according to his imperial will: the crown of Naples he bestowed on his brother Joseph, that of Holland on Louis, and Westphalia on Jerome; while the confederation of the Rhine was called into existence to give stability to his extended dominion, by which act Francis I. was compelled to renounce his title of Roman emperor and German king, and style himself emperor of Austria, which title he had assumed on the erection of the French empire in 1804. Prussia again declared war; but the disastrous battles of Auerstadt and Jena, fought on the same day, annihilated her hopes, and both she and Russia were glad to make peace with the French emperor in 1807.

Napoleon now turned his eye on Spain; treacherously causing the abdication of Charles IV., and the forced resignation of Ferdinand VII., while he sent eighty thousand men into that country, seized all the strong places, and obtained possession of the capital. The Spanish crown he bestowed on Joseph, for which purpose he transferred that of Naples to his brother-in-law Murat. Soon afterward Portugal was invaded by the French under Junot, Lisbon captured, and the royal family of Braganza forced to retire to Brazil. But this invasion of the Spanish dominions was the great error of Napoleon's life, and one of the main causes of his downfall.

In 1809, while his armies were occupied in the peninsula, Austria, instigated by the British government, again ventured to try her strength with France. Napoleon thereupon left Paris, and at the head of his troops once more entered the Austrian capital, gained the decisive victory of Wagram, and soon concluded a peace; one of the secret conditions of which was, that he should have his marriage with Josephine dissolved, and unite himself to the daughter of the emperor Francis I. His former marriage was accordingly annulled, and he espoused the archduchess Maria Louisa in April, 1810. The fruit of this union was a son, born March 23, 1811, who was named Napoleon Francis Charles

Joseph, and styled king of Rome. (After his father's downfall, he was wholly under the care of his grandfather, the emperor of Austria, bearing the title of duke of Riechstadt. He was from infancy of a weakly constitution, and a rapid decline terminated his life in 1832, at the early age of twenty-one. He was of an amiable disposition, and greatly beloved by those who knew him. He took the deepest interest in everything connected with his father's former greatness, or relating to military affairs.)

Dissatisfied with the conduct of Russia, Napoleon again put himself at the head of an invading army, prodigious in numbers and admirably appointed, and marched with his numerous allies toward the enemy's frontiers. This eventful campaign against Russia may be said to have opened on the 22d of June, 1812, on which day he issued a proclamation, wherein, with his usual oracular brevity, he declared that his "destinies were about to be accomplished." On the 28th of June he entered Wilna, in Poland, where he established a provisional government, while he assembled a general diet at Warsaw, and reorganized the Polish nationality. In the meantime the French army continued its march, and passed the Niemen on the 23d, 24th, and 25th of June, arriving at Witepsk on the way to Smolensko in the early part of July. In the march it obtained several victories; and the Russians, finding their enemy too powerful in open contest, contented themselves for the most part in laying waste the country, and adding to the severities and operation of the Russian climate upon a southern soldiery. The French army, however, undauntedly proceeded, until, arriving near Moscow on the 10th of September, the famous battle of Borodino was fought, so fatal to both parties, and in which sixty thousand men are supposed to have perished. Napoleon, notwithstanding, pressed on to Moscow, from which the Russians retreated, as also the greater part of the inhabitants, who abandoned it by order of the governor, Count Rostopchin. When, therefore, Napoleon entered the celebrated capital, four days after the battle, he found it for the most part deserted and in flames, the governor having liberated all the criminals from the prisons on condition that they should fire the city in every quarter. This strong measure saved the Russian empire, by completely destroying the resources of Napoleon. After remaining thirty-five days in the ruins of this ancient metropolis, exposed to every species of privation, retreat became necessary, amid one of the most striking scenes of human suffering ever experienced—a brave and devoted army encountering all the horrors of famine in a climate so insupportably cold that their frozen bodies strewed the roads, while an exasperated phalanx of Cossacks hung upon the rear of the main army, hewing down without remorse the enfeebled and wretched fugitives all the way to Poland. The narrative of Count Ségur, who details all the events of this unfortunate campaign, and their effect on Napoleon, perhaps forms the most appalling picture in modern history.

On the 18th of December, Napoleon entered Paris at night; and on the following day a bulletin, with no great concealment of their extent, disclosed his losses. Early the next month he presented to the senate a decree for levying three hundred and fifty thousand men (about half the number with which he had entered Russia), which was unanimously agreed to; and he forthwith began preparations to encounter the forces of Russia and Prussia, now once more in combination. On the 2d of May, 1813, they met at Lutzen, and the allies retired; on which Austria undertook to mediate, but not succeeding, the battle of Bautzen followed, in which the French were victorious. On the 20th of May an armistice took place, and negotiations were opened, which proved fruitless; and Austria was at length induced to join the allies. On this important event, Napoleon endeavored to reach Berlin, while the allies sought to occupy Dresden, which attempt induced him to return and repulse them in the battle of Dresden, on which occasion, Moreau, who had come from Paris to

fight under the banner of the confederates, was mortally wounded. At length these equivocal contests terminated in the famous battle of Leipsic (fought on the 16th, 18th, and 19th of October), which was decisive of the war as to Germany. The French loss was immense: Prince Poniatowski of Poland was killed, fifteen general officers were wounded, and twenty-three taken prisoners; and of one hundred and eighty-four thousand men, opposed to three hundred thousand allies, not more than sixty thousand remained. On this great victory, the Saxons, Bavarians, Westphalians, in a word, all the contingent powers, declared for the allies.

Napoleon now returned to Paris, and interrupted the complimentary address by thus stating the disagreeable fact, that "within the last year all Europe marched with us, now all Europe is leagued against us!" He followed up this avowal by another demand for three hundred thousand men. The levy was granted, and on the 26th of January, 1814, he again headed his army; and the allies having passed the Rhine early in the same month, in the succeeding month of February were fought the battles of Dizier, Brienne, Camp Aubert, and Montmirail, with various success. But now the advanced guard of the Russians entered into action, and Napoleon was called to another quarter. The sanguinary conflicts of Montereau and Nogent followed, in which the allied forces suffered very severely, and were obliged to retire upon Troyes. The genius of Napoleon never shone more conspicuously than during this period, while contending against such fearful odds; but, elated by his recent successes, he declined the aid of Prince Eugene, who was marching to his assistance with a powerful army from Italy, confidently saying that he himself could take care of France, and directing the viceroy to remain in his own dominions.

Early in March the treaty of alliance was concluded between Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, by which each was bound not to make peace but upon certain conditions. This was signed at Chatillon, on the 15th of March, and made known to Napoleon, who refused the terms. His plan was now to get in the rear of the combined army, and by this manœuvre to endeavor to draw them off from Paris; but the allies, gaining possession of his intentions by an intercepted letter, hastened their progress, and on the 30th of March attacked the heights of Chaumont, overlooking the capital, from which they were repulsed with great loss. At length, however, their extensive array bore on so many points, that on the French being driven back on the barriers of Paris, Marshal Marmont, who commanded there, sent a flag of truce, and proposed to deliver up the city. Napoleon hastened from Fontainebleau, but was apprized, five leagues from Paris, of the result. He accordingly returned to Fontainebleau, where he commanded an army of fifty thousand men, and the negotiation ensued which terminated with his consignment to the island of Elba (the sovereignty of which was vested in him), with the title of ex-emperor, and a pension of two millions of livres. He displayed becoming firmness on this occasion, and on the 20th of April, 1814, after embracing the officer commanding the attendant grenadiers of his guard, and the imperial eagles, he departed to his destination. Maria Louisa refused to accompany him to Elba, on the plea of ill health; and having obtained, by treaty with the allied powers, the duchies of Parma and Placentia, &c., she repaired thither with her chamberlain (Count Neipperg, an Austrian nobleman), for whom she had conceived an attachment, and whom she subsequently married. (She died December 18, 1847, at the age of fifty-six.)

From Elba, Napoleon soon found means to escape. Secretly embarking on the night of the 25th of February, 1815, in some hired feluccas, accompanied by about twelve hundred men, he landed on the 1st of March, in the gulf of Juan, in Provence. He immediately issued a proclamation, announcing his intention to resume the crown, of which "treason had robbed him;" and pro-

ceeding to Grenoble, was at once welcomed by the commanding officer, Labe-doyere, and in two days after he entered Lyons, where he experienced a similar reception. In Lyons he proceeded formally to resume all the functions of sovereignty by choosing counsellors, generals, and prefects, and publishing various decrees, one of which was for abolishing the noblesse, of whom the restored family had already made the French people apprehensive, and another proscribing the race of Bourbon. Thus received and favored, he reached Paris on the 20th of March, without drawing a sword. In the capital he was received with the loud acclamations of "Vive l'empereur!" and was joined by Marshal Ney, and Generals Drouet, Lallemant, and Lefebvre. On the following day he reviewed his army, received general congratulations, and announced the return of the empress. On opening the assembly of representatives, on the 7th of June following, he talked of establishing a constitutional monarchy.

By this time, however, the allies were once more in motion; and having collected an immense supply of stores and ammunition, Napoleon quitted Paris on the 12th of April, to march and oppose their progress. He arrived on the 13th at Avesnes, and on the 14th and 16th fought the partially successful battles of Fleurus and Ligny. June 18th, occurred the signal and well-known discomfiture of Waterloo, in which the British, having greatly the advantage in numbers and position, made so successful a stand under the duke of Wellington, until aided into decisive victory by the timely arrival of the Prussians under Blucher, and the non-arrival of the French, under Grouchy, who should have come to the support of Napoleon. In the battle, out of ninety-five thousand men, it is thought that the French lost nearly fifty thousand.

Napoleon immediately returned to Paris, but the charm was now utterly dissolved; and, soured by the result of the battle, and fearing another occupation of the capital, a strong party was openly formed against him, and even his friends urged him to abdicate. He was prevailed upon at length, with some difficulty, to take this step in favor of his son, Napoleon II. The ex-emperor repaired to the coast, with the intention of embarking for America; but fearful of British cruisers, he at length determined to throw himself on the generosity of the only people who had never materially yielded to his influence. He accordingly resigned himself, on the 15th of July, into the hands of Captain Maitland, of the British frigate *Bellerophon*, then lying at Rochefort, and was exceedingly anxious to land in England, whither he had been previously assured he should be taken, and treated with every mark of respect due to his rank. On giving himself up, he despatched General Gourgaud to the prince-regent (afterward George IV.), with a letter, comparing his own fate to that of Themistocles. He went on board, July 16; and the vessel immediately sailed for Torbay, where he was informed, on the part of the English government, that he was to be conveyed as a prisoner to St. Helena, by the joint determination of the allies. For this, his final destination, he sailed on the 11th of August, 1815, and arrived on the 13th of the following October, receiving from the English the title of "General Bonaparte," and watched by the commissioners of the allies as a European prisoner-of-state. He was voluntarily accompanied by General Bertrand, with his wife and child; Count Montholon, with his wife and child; Count Las Casas, with his son, who was obliged to leave him in 1817; General Gourgaud, who returned to Europe in 1818; and by several servants.

Napoleon's life at St. Helena has disarmed the hatred of many of his contemporaries, while it has increased the respect of his adherents. He maintained his character in the miseries of exile as in the palace of the Tuileries. All the persons who served him at St. Helena treated him as emperor, and he returned their fidelity with feelings of gratitude and friendship. The governor of the island, Sir Hudson Lowe watched him with unsparing rigor; but Na-



Island of St. Helena, where Napoleon was banished and died.

pooleon still exhibited the immovable firmness which had previously distinguished him. In no respect would he concede to the English the right to dispose of his person. When his physician, O'Meara, was ordered to leave him by the English governor, he remained for some months without medical aid: the prayers of his attendants, and the daily declining state of his health, could not induce him to admit a physician sent by the English governor. When he was no longer permitted to go abroad without military escort, he never left his habitation at Longwood. His principal employment was the composition of his memoirs. For recreation, he played chess, or some one read to him, chiefly tragedies. In the confidential circle, he spoke of his childhood and his fate with the calmness with which he would have spoken of the history of antiquity. Of the French at St. Helena, Napoleon was the most serene. He entertained for his son the most tender affection, on whose portrait, which hung near his bed, he would gaze long and earnestly during his final illness; of France he spoke only with respect and love. He requested that, on his death, his heart might be sent to Maria Louisa, but Sir Hudson Lowe refused the dying wish.

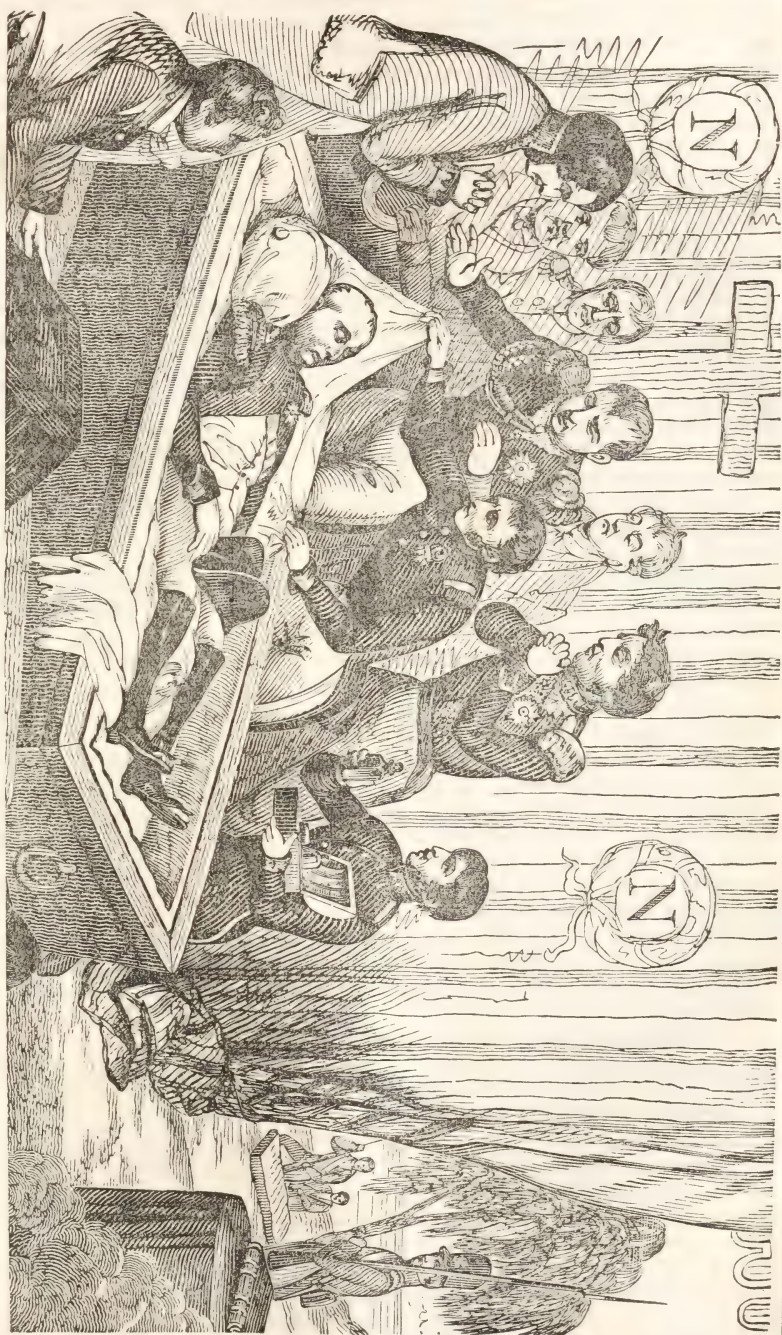
Napoleon's sickness first assumed a dangerous character during the last six weeks of his life. According to the English physicians, who opened his body in the presence of Dr. Antommarchi, sent to the ex-emperor from Italy, it was occasioned by a cancer of the stomach, a disease which was evidently hereditary, his father having, at about the same age, died of a similar malady. Napoleon was aware that his death was approaching, and spoke of it frequently and with composure. When he heard from the physician that he had but forty-eight hours to live, he asked General Bertrand to assist him in making his will, which occupied them both about fifteen hours. His last dispositions contain many proofs of his gratitude and kindness. He was slightly delirious in the morning previous to his death, and his last words were, "Mon fils!" soon afterward, "Tête d'armée!" and lastly, "France." At the hour of his dissolution, no change was visible in his countenance. He expired—on the field-bed which he had used at Austerlitz—with calmness, in the arms of his faithful friends Bertrand and Montholon, at Longwood, May 5, 1821, about six o'clock in the evening, aged fifty-one years and nine months. On the 9th he was interred, according to his own desire, near some willow-trees and a spring of water, at a place called "Haine's Valley," his funeral being attended with the highest military honors. The voluntary companions of his exile, General Bertrand and Count Montholon, with their families, returned, by way of England, to France and Paris, by permission of the French government, October, 1821.

In his last will and testament, Napoleon said: "It is my wish that my ashes may repose on the banks of the Seine, in the midst of the French people whom I have loved so well." Twenty years subsequent to his death, that wish was complied with—a wish which he thought in his dying moments to have been a vain one; and his remains now repose in the heart of his own country, in the place worthy of France's greatest general—under the dome of the Invalides.

The following account of the disinterment and appearance of Napoleon's remains is from an eyewitness:—

"The workmen were arduously employed from midnight until half-past nine o'clock in the morning, before the earth was entirely removed from the vault, all the horizontal strata of masonry demolished, and the large slab which covered the internal sarcophagus detached and raised by means of a crane. The cemented masonry-work which enclosed the coffin on every side, and which, during the nineteen years that have elapsed since it was built, had suffered no detriment, had so preserved it from the effects of the atmosphere and the neighboring spring, that at first sight it did not appear to be in the slightest degree injured. The sarcophagus in flagstones was perfect, and could scarcely be said to be damp.

Napoleon in his Coffin, as he appeared on his Disinterment, at St Helena



"It is difficult to describe with what anxiety, with what emotions, those who were present waited for the moment that was to expose to them all that death had left of Napoleon. Notwithstanding the singular state of preservation of the tomb and coffins, we would scarcely hope to find anything but some misshapen remains of the least perishable parts of the costume, as evidence of the identity. But when, by the hand of Dr. Guillard, the satin sheet was raised, an indescribable feeling of surprise and affection was expressed by the spectators, most of whom burst into tears. The emperor himself was before their eyes! The features of his face, though changed, were perfectly recognised—the hands perfectly beautiful; his well-known costume had suffered but little, and the colors were easily distinguished; the epaulettes, the decorations, and the hat, seemed to be entirely preserved from decay; the attitude itself was full of ease, and but for the fragments of the satin lining, which covered as with a satin gauze several parts of the uniform, we might have believed we saw before us Napoleon still extended on a bed of state."

The coffins were again sealed up, and conveyed on board a French ship-of-war waiting to receive them (commanded by Prince de Joinville, third son of Louis Philippe), and conveyed in safety to the shores of France, where they were interred with great pomp and ceremony, as previously remarked, under the dome of the Invalides.

In person, Napoleon was short; he measured but five feet six inches. His head was rather large, in comparison to his body, and covered with chestnut-colored hair. His broad and elevated forehead indicated a firm will. His eyes were light-blue, and susceptible of great variety of expression. The eyelashes were lighter than the eyebrows, which were of the color of his hair. His nose was fine, his mouth agreeably formed, and capable of very various expression. His chin was rounded, and his cheeks approaching to square. His complexion was clear olive; otherwise, in general, colorless. His neck was short; his shoulders broad. His hands were small and white. His feet also were small; but this particular was less observable, as he was averse to tight shoes. Before he became fat, his figure was, on the whole, well proportioned. When past thirty, he began to grow corpulent, which he disliked; before that time, he was lean. Extreme cleanliness was natural to him; he was very fond of the warm bath, and not unfrequently remained a whole hour in it. In eating and drinking he was extremely moderate, never having been known to exceed the bounds of temperance. His sleep was in proportion to his labors; but in this, too, he was moderate. Sometimes he would allow himself a brief slumber amid the din and confusion of the battle-field, so that, on waking, he might give his orders with greater freshness. His face, like that of Frederick the Great, was of such a character as to be recognised, however rudely or slightly drawn.

After a lapse of thirty years, mankind begin to fully appreciate the character of Bonaparte, and to award him the merit which he deserves. The asperity of feeling throughout Europe, which his career aroused, is mellowed by time and the change of circumstances; and the lights of his political character continue to increase in brilliancy as we recede from the stormy period when the events of Waterloo changed his destiny from a king to a captive.

Napoleon must ever be regarded as a mighty instrument in effecting the political regeneration of Europe—in breaking up the fallow soil of the old kingdoms and dynasties, and preparing it for the reception of the seeds of civil liberty. The strength of Poland, Switzerland, Sweden, and, we may add, of Germany, where liberal feelings had long been cherished, was fast declining, and new accessions of power were constantly being made to the several hereditary monarchies of Europe; and France, the country of his adoption—a country which he loved—a country for whose honor he had donned the sword and

shield—had just emerged from the crucible of a fierce and bloody revolution, when his genius began to develop itself. He had looked with an anxious eye upon the events of the revolution and the establishment of a directory, and seemed to perceive with prophetic vision the incapacity of France to maintain the stand she had taken, while so many discordant materials composed the machinery of her government, and so many of the crowned heads around her were anxiously waiting the first opportunity to restore the Bourbons, and crush in the bud the fair flowers of promise which liberty had planted. It may have been personal ambition that induced him to leave the army of Egypt, return to France, and procure the appointment of first consul. But even if it were so, do not his subsequent acts, when he had reached the acme of honor and power, justify silence the voice of those who would brand him as a despot? Was it for his elevation, his personal aggrandizement, that the cohorts of Gaul crossed the Alps and the Apennines, or gathered in battle array upon the sandy plains of the land of the Pharaohs? Did he, like Cæsar, destroy whole nations on his direct march to the banks of the Rubicon, without bestowing a single blessing upon the lands he had depopulated? Nay, he reared no standard but that of his country; and wherever in Europe he made monarchies bow to the eagles of France, he established laws upon principles very liberal compared with existing codes. He broke the chains which, in many parts of Europe, bound the people to the car of ignorance, superstition, and despotism; he weakened the temporal power of the pope, threw open the horrid dungeons of the inquisition, and, as far as laid in his power, poured the light of intelligence into every dark corner of the kingdoms he had overturned. He revised the criminal code of France; constructed harbors, roads, and bridges; established the manufacture of sugar from the beet, and encouraged agriculture; and was a liberal patron of the arts and sciences in general. In a word, in rightly estimating the character of Napoleon, and the advantages resulting from his career, we should reflect upon the peculiar circumstances by which he was surrounded, and lose sight of the instrument in our admiration of the salutary effects of its power.

MEHEMET ALI.

MEHEMET ALI, pacha of Egypt, and, it may be safely said, one of the most remarkable men of the age, was born at Cavalla, in Roumelia, a province of European Turkey, in 1769; the same year that witnessed the birth of Napoleon Bonaparte and the duke of Wellington. He commenced life in the humble career of a tobacconist; but afterward volunteered into the army, to which his taste was more congenial.

In his new career, Mehemet soon obtained high favor with the governor of Cavalla. In 1799, the period of the French invasion of Egypt, he raised a large body of men for the service of the sultan, Mustapha IV.; and although the general issue of that struggle, as between the sultan and Napoleon, was unfavorable to the arms of the former, the future viceroy of Egypt had given such proofs of his military capacity as to lead to his elevation to a higher command. By intrigue, combined with the attachment of his followers, whom, like a prudent leader, he had contrived to bind to his interests, he was enabled to seize the pachalic of Egypt, and was then prepared to set the sultan at defiance, had the latter attempted to overthrow him. But the sultan saw that his vassal was too firmly seated to be easily displaced, and resolved to compromise by exacting an annual tribute from Mehemet Ali as an acknowledgment of his subjection.

In this arrangement, which virtually constituted Mehemet Ali the indepen-

dent ruler of Egypt, he had the prudence to acquiesce, and he directed himself steadily to the consolidation of his newly-acquired power—no easy task in a country which had been distracted by invasion, and at best loosely governed. One great obstacle to his becoming the sole ruler and regenerator of the country lay in the presence of the Mamelukes, a privileged body-guard, jealous of their power, and ever ready for revolution when it was threatened. He was resolved that, cost what it might, this barrier to his complete ascendancy should be removed. We are told that he first tried moderate measures, by offering the Mamelukes an asylum in a remote part of his dominion, but they spurned at the idea of quitting their hold in the seat of government. Thus foiled, he adopted the daring and sanguinary expedient of decoying these soldiers into a toil, and then commencing the work of indiscriminate slaughter. He invited those of the body who were living in the neighborhood of Cairo to be present at a grand festival to be given on the 1st of March, 1811, in honor of his son's being invested with the command of an expedition against Mecca. To this ceremony all the Mamelukes repaired; and when they were within the gates of the pacha's castle, which were closed upon them, a shower of musketry was poured down upon them, from which they could not escape. Count Forbin, in his "*Voyage to the Levant*," in 1817-'18 (the work from which our engraving is taken), thus describes the scene: "That audacious militia, the Mamelukes, which, since the time of Malek Shah, had made Egypt to feel their power, were nearly destroyed by Mehemet Ali. They had received orders to hold themselves in readiness to take part in a grand ceremony, which was to precede the departure of his son for Mecca. 'That day,' said an inhabitant of Cairo to me, 'the sun rose the color of blood!' The pacha looked dark and melancholy: but recollecting that he was to preside at one of the most brilliant fêtes of the mussulmans, he assumed a smile which contrasted remarkably with his general appearance. He had addressed the Mamelukes as the 'Elder Sons of the Prophet;' and called upon them, by the peace which subsisted between them to celebrate with him the departure of his son for the holy tomb. In the mean time a number of faithful Albanians were concealed upon the ramparts, the towers, and behind the walls of the citadel. The Mamelukes arrived with the utmost confidence, and the gates were closed upon them. The pacha had placed himself on the summit of a terrace, seated on a carpet, smoking a magnificent *narguilé* (Persian pipe), whence he could see every motion without being seen; behind him were three of his confidential officers. He regarded the scene below with a fixed and terrible look, without speaking a word; the signal was given to 'fire!' and the massacre of the Mamelukes commenced. They were adorned, or rather encumbered, with their finest arms, and mounted on noble horses; but their numbers, their courage, all were useless—they were destroyed!"

Such of the Mamelukes as escaped the indiscriminate massacre within the walls of the castle, were seized, carried out, and beheaded; and numbers in the towns and villages, on the calamity which had befallen their brethren being made known, shared a like fate. The remnant retired to Dongola and Nubia; but they were scattered by Ibrahim Pacha, and from that period the total destruction, or, at least, the complete subjugation, of the once-proud Mamelukes may be dated. Ibrahim now extended his father's sway over Nubia, Dongola, and Koordossan, and reduced the Wahabees after a sanguinary campaign.

Mehemet Ali assisted the sultan in the war of the Greek revolution; his step-son and successor, Ibrahim Pacha, was the chief leader of the Turks; and his ships sustained the shock of the allied navy in the "untoward affair" of Navarino, in 1827, which well nigh annihilated the naval power of the viceroy, at least for a long season. Notwithstanding this adversity, his power as a ruler of Egypt no way declined, for he long ere this possessed an army disciplined after the European fashion; Colonel Selves, a French officer (now Su-

MeheMET Ali witnessing the Massacre of the Mamelukes.



leyman Pacha), having addressed himself to this task in 1815, and at length succeeded, after a persevering contest with the prejudices of the people, during which he more than once narrowly escaped assassination.

In 1831, Mehemet Ali entered into a contest with the sultan, Mahmoud IV., for the possession of Syria, when the superiority of his army thus disciplined became very manifest. His step-son Ibrahim, who in 1819 had signalized himself by his conquest of the Wahabees, commanded the army sent against Syria; and such was the vigor with which he assailed the forces of the sultan, that, in the autumn of 1832, he had carried his victorious arms within a few days' march of Constantinople.

For seven years subsequently, Mehemet Ali remained undisturbed by war, during which his active mind was steadily directed to the internal improvement of his kingdom. But in 1839, the sultan resolved to have another trial of strength with his rebellious vassal, and despatched an army into Syria. Again was Ibrahim victorious on land, and the sultan found himself deprived of his navy, which was delivered into the hands of Mehemet Ali by a treacherous admiral. Had Mehemet Ali and the sultan been left to settle their own differences, the probability is that the former would, in the end, have made himself master of Constantinople, so superior was he to the Turks in all the appliances of war; but England and the allies (excepting France) resolved a second time to throw their shield over the sultan; and the English fleet, under Admiral Stopford and Sir Charles Napier, having battered down and wrenched Beyrout, Acre, and Sidon, from his grasp, Mehemet Ali was compelled to resign Syria to the power of the Sultan in 1840. Notwithstanding the injuries received at the hands of the allies during this war, Mehemet Ali, instead of retaliating by suspending the transit of the overland Indian mail across his dominions, magnanimously afforded every protection and facility to those engaged in the duty.

Mehemet Ali enjoyed robust health till nearly the close of his life; but, about two years before his death, his intellect became clouded, and in September, 1848, his sceptre passed to the hands of his step-son, Ibrahim Pacha, on whose death, ten months afterward, it devolved on his grandson, Abbas Pacha, the present ruler of Egypt. Mehemet died at Alexandria, August 2, 1849, aged eighty.

The character of Mehemet Ali of course can not be tried by the standard that would be applied to one reared and educated amid the advantages of civilization. To raise Egypt, not only in her armaments but internal resources, to the scale of civilized Europe, was his ruling passion; and in this pursuit he shunned no means likely to prove successful. Altogether, he may be pronounced one of the most remarkable men of his time—the Napoleon of the East, with this difference, that, unlike the Gallic conqueror, he knew when to stop, and thus maintained to the last the ground he had gained. He had wars with the semi-barbarous tribes on his own frontiers, who had little chance with his disciplined and well-armed troops, and these conquests served to establish his power; but he had also to measure his strength with very different foes, and whom he could never dream of conquering: yet even those collisions with the powers of Europe did not shake his government, so broad was the basis on which he had placed it, and so enlightened the views which constantly directed his policy. He found Egypt a pachalic of the Porte, abandoned to a rude and careless sway, the effect of which was seen in the neglected state of cultivation, and the prevailing poverty of the inhabitants. He has handed it down to his successors a powerful kingdom, with ample resources, and, above all, with order and security prevailing; so much so, that foreigners can travel as safely within its limits as in the most civilized country. Considering the country in which he lived, and the slender opportunities he had in early life of cultivating those qualities which afterward sustained him in his elevated position, we may say that centuries might have rolled on ere one had arisen who could have worked changes as extensive and beneficial to the country.



BARON CUVIER.

GEORGE LEOPOLD CHRISTIAN FREDERIC DAGOBERT CUVIER, the most eminent naturalist of modern times, was born August 25, 1769, at Montbéliard, then belonging to the duchy of Würtemberg. His brilliant talents very early excited great expectations. His father was an officer in the army. As the son's health was too feeble to allow him to become a soldier, he resolved to be a clergyman. He was obliged to pass an examination for the stipend, by the help of which he expected to study at Tübingen. A malicious examiner rejected him. The affair, however, was marked by so much injustice, that Prince Frederic, brother of the duke, and governor of the district, thought it his duty to compensate Cuvier by a place in the Charles academy at Stuttgart. Here he gave up his intention of becoming a clergyman. In Stuttgart, he studied at first the science of law, though he was particularly fond of natural history. To this period of his life he is indebted for his accurate knowledge of the German language and literature.

The narrow circumstances of his parents compelled Cuvier to accept the office of private instructor in the family of Count D'Hericy, in Normandy. Here he was at liberty to devote his leisure to natural science. Cuvier soon perceived that zoology was far from that perfection to which Linnæus had carried botany, and to which mineralogy had been carried by the united labors of the philosophers of Germany and France.* The first desideratum was a care-

Among the naturalists of this period, two names had become distinguished for their labors in the field of natural history—Linnæus (whom we have already noticed), and Buffon. GEORGE LOUIS LE CLERC BUFFON, count of, &c., "the Pliny of France," was the son of a counsellor of the parliament of Dijon, and was born September 7, 1707, at Montbard, in Burgundy. He studied law at Dijon, but never practised it, his inclinations leading him to mathematical and physical science, and Euclid being his constant pocket-companion. After travelling in Italy and England, he succeeded to his paternal estate at Montbard, between which and Paris his time was spent. In 1739, he was appointed keeper of the Royal garden and cabinet at Paris, and greatly increased their treasures. He was also a member of

ful observation of all the organs of animals, in order to ascertain their mutual dependence, and their influence on animal life; then a confutation of the fanciful systems which had obscured rather than illustrated the study. Examinations of the marine productions, with which the neighboring ocean abundantly supplied him, served him as a suitable preparation. A natural classification of the numerous classes of *vermes* (Linnæus) was his first labor, and the clearness with which he gave an account of his observations and ingenious views procured him an acquaintance with all the naturalists of Paris.

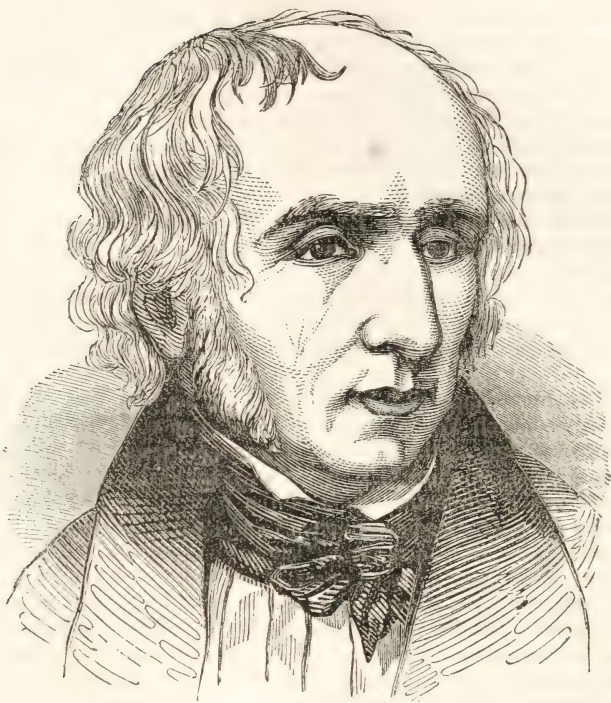
Geoffrey St. Hilaire invited Cuvier to Paris; opened to him the collections of natural history, over which he presided; took part with him in the publication of several works on the classification of the *mammalia*; and placed him at the Central school in Paris, May, 1795. The institute, being re-established the same year, received him as a member of the first class. For the use of the Central school, he wrote his "*Tableau Élémentaire de l'Histoire Naturelle des Animaux*," in 1798, by which he laid the foundation of his future fame.

From this time, Cuvier was considered one of the first zoologists of Europe. He soon after displayed his brilliant talents as professor of comparative anatomy. His profound knowledge was not less remarkable than his elevated views, and the elegance with which he illustrated them before a mixed audience. In the lecture-room of the *Lycée*, where he lectured several years on natural history, was assembled all the accomplished society of Paris, attracted by the ingenuity of his classifications, and by his extensive surveys of all the kingdoms of nature.

In January, 1800, Cuvier justly received the place formerly occupied by D'Aubenton, in the *Collège de France*. His merits did not escape the sagacity of Napoleon. In the department of public instruction, in which, one after another, he filled the most important offices, he exercised much influence by his useful improvements and indefatigable activity. He delivered a report very honorable to Germany, in 1811, when he returned from a journey in Holland and Germany, as superintendent of instruction. He was accompanied in this journey by Noël.

In 1813, the emperor appointed Cuvier *maître des requêtes* to the council of state, and committed to his care the most important affairs in Mayence. Louis XVIII. confirmed him in his former offices, and raised him to the rank of councillor. As such, he belonged at first to the committee of legislation, and afterward to that of the interior. As a politician, he drew upon himself the reproaches of the liberals. In general, the political course of Cuvier forms such a contrast with his scientific one, and is, besides, of so little importance, that we are very willing to pass it by in silence. The measures of the abbé Fraysinoux, then chancellor of the university of Paris, determined him to resign the office of university-counsellor, in December, 1822. Notwithstanding his political engagements, Cuvier devoted himself continually to the study of natural history, which he has extended by his discoveries. He was enrolled among the forty members of the French academy, while almost all the learned societies in the world sent him honorary diplomas. He twice visited England, namely, in 1818 and 1830; and died at Paris, in 1832, aged sixty-three. To Baron Cuvier, France is indebted for the finest osteological collection in the world: while the whole world is indebted to him for the immense addition which he has made to the general stock of zoological science.

the French academy and of the Academy of Sciences. Buffon died April 16, 1788. As a man, he was fond of dress and display, lax in his morals, and immeasurably vain. Newton, Bacon, Leibnitz, Montesquieu, and himself, were the only persons whom he would allow to be great geniuses! His first literary works were, "Translations of Hales's Vegetable Statics," and "Newton's Fluxions." He also wrote the "Epochs of Nature," a work of originality and merit. But for his fame he is indebted to his "Natural History," in thirty-six volumes, which, although immethodical and often inaccurate, is an astonishing and eloquent work, and has been naturalized in almost every European language.



WILLIAM WORDSWORTH.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH, one of the greatest poets of our age and language, was born at Cockermouth, in the county of Cumberland, England, April 7, 1770. He received the rudiments of his mental culture at Hawkshead school, and in the year 1787 was entered at St. John's college, Cambridge. Having completed his studies and taken his academical degree, he made the tour of France and Switzerland, at a period when the Revolution in France had attained its grand crisis; and its influence upon the fiery imagination and sensitive mind of Wordsworth was no less forcible than that produced upon those of his friends and frequent companions, Coleridge, Southey, and Lloyd. The earnest thoughts that had been generated by his continued meditations upon this theme found an utterance in his "Descriptive Sketches" and "Evening Walk," both of which made their appearance in 1793.

In 1797, Wordsworth had conceived a plan for the regeneration of English poetry. In 1798, he published, in conjunction with Coleridge, a collection of "Lyrical Ballads." The majority of these productions were from his own pen. This book, so far from making converts to Wordsworth's peculiar way of thinking, met everywhere with the bitterest contempt and ridicule. The "Edinburgh Review" denounced his theory as puerile, and stigmatized his verses as a species of second-rate nursery-rhymes. There can be no doubt that Wordsworth in his zeal to redeem the English muse from a corrupted and inane phraseology, like other reactionists of a sterner character, pushed his favorite theory too far. Still many of his readers sympathized with his views; and through

their encouragement he was induced to publish other two volumes of poetry in 1807.

In 1814, appeared Wordsworth's great work, "The Excursion," which, according to a contemporary critic, is "brimful of splendid thoughts clothed in splendid language, while it breathes a spirit of enlightened benevolence and charity, which seem wondrous, grand, and beautiful in their drapery of glowing ing eloquence when tested by the poet's own theory." About the period of the publication of "The Excursion," Wordsworth obtained the situation of distributor of stamps, which office he retained during the lapse of twenty-eight years, retiring in 1842 upon a pension of fifteen hundred dollars, while his son filled the vacancy thus occasioned.

Several works followed "The Excursion," among which may be mentioned the "White Doe of Rylstone;" and in 1842 appeared a volume containing several poems written in the poet's early youth, accompanied by others written in his old age. In 1843, he succeeded his friend Southey as poet-laureate of England. Wordsworth died in 1850, aged eighty. His noble autobiographical poem, "The prelude on the Growth of a Poet's Mind," was a posthumous publication.

It would be almost impossible to exaggerate or over-estimate the importance of the influence which Wordsworth, in conjunction with Coleridge, has exercised in the formation of the intellectual characteristics of the present age. Many of the greatest thinkers of England have sat at the feet of Coleridge, that "old man eloquent;" while the whole of the poetry that has issued from the English press for years has been tintured and colored by the genius of Wordsworth. "During the last thirty years," says a contemporary critic, "the regenerative power of his genius has so operated upon the public taste, that the pure, the simple, and the good, are now the more regarded elements of poetry, while the Laras, Giaours, and the other distempered objects of a feverish imagination, are ceasing to be among the attractive imagery of song. Perhaps the most remarkable triumph of his genius is its conquest over that very 'Review' which scorned and sneered at him in the beginning of his career; for his spirit now undoubtedly pervades this very organ which scoffed at him so bitterly, and even rejected his language as too puerile for the nursery."

Wordsworth was eminently the poet of the moral nature. To him the most beautiful object in the world was a beautiful human soul. His favorite belief was the divine adaptation of the universe to the growth and development of humanity. Hence he watched the changing phases of nature, not only with the passion of a lover, but with the enthusiasm of a devotee. Everything to him was instinct with a spiritual life. Nature was glorified by its connection with man, and man was brought into a sublime ideal sphere by his relations with nature.

For many years, Wordsworth enjoyed the inestimable privilege of receiving that guerdon of love and admiration while living, which are too frequently brought into operation for no other purpose than that of scattering garlands upon the tomb of genius. Thousands of his admirers made a pilgrimage to the poet's sanctuary, "Rydal Mount," situated in the vicinity of the beautiful lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, and commanding a view of some of the boldest scenery in England; and not a few crossed over from other lands to catch a glimpse of that good man and great poet who has filled the world with his fame.



LUDWIG VAN BEETHOVEN.

THE illustrious name of LUDWIG VAN BEETHOVEN was first heard near the close of the eighteenth century. This eminent musical composer was born at Bonn, Germany, in 1770. He was the son of a tenor-singer in the elector of Cologne's chapel at that place; though, according to Fayolle's "Dictionary of Musicians," he is said to have been a natural son of Frederick the Great of Prussia. He made great progress in music at a very early age, notwithstanding his being attacked by a disease which affected his hearing, and eventually terminated in total deafness. He astonished, in his eighth year, all who heard him, by his execution on the violin, on which he was in the habit of performing, with great diligence, in a little garret. Some of his vocal and instrumental pieces were published, at Mannheim, when he was only thirteen years of age.

In 1792, the elector of Cologne, whose attention had been attracted to his youthful genius, sent him, in the character of his organist, and at his expense, to Vienna, that he might accomplish himself there in composition under the instruction of Haydn. Under Haydn, and the celebrated teacher Albrechtsberger, he made rapid progress, and became likewise a great player on the pianoforte, astonishing every one who heard him by his extempore performances.

By the death of the elector of Cologne, in 1801, Beethoven lost a zealous patron; and this event seems to have induced him to leave his native place, and take up his abode in Vienna, in which city he constantly resided for the rest of his life. Being of an independent spirit, and utterly incapable of practising the arts of a courtier, he never succeeded in gaining the favor of the great, or in obtaining any of the solid advantages with which that favor is attended. He was appointed to no situation of emolument; and, for the greater part of his life, had nothing but the income derived from his compositions. He

strongly felt a treatment which was unworthy of his genius, and frequently gave vent to his feelings with more freedom than prudence.

At length, in 1809, he received an offer of the situation of *maestro di capella* to the newly-formed court of Jerome Bonaparte, king of Westphalia, and was about to accept it, when the archduke Rudolph, and the princes Lobkowitz and Kinsky, ashamed of the neglect which he had met with, and actuated by a liberality which did them honor, settled on him an annuity of four thousand florins (about two thousand dollars), by a deed drawn up in flattering and delicate terms. The only condition was, that he should reside in Vienna, or some other part of Austria proper, and not travel into foreign countries without the consent of his patrons. He was thus placed in easy circumstances; but, unfortunately, owing to the death of Prince Kinsky, and the ruin of Prince Lobkowitz, the greatest part of his pension was discontinued; and all that he was receiving at the time of his death was seven hundred and twenty florins (about three hundred and fifty dollars) a year.

In the meantime, while a rapid succession of great works was filling Europe with his fame, Beethoven was withdrawing himself more and more from intercourse with the world, and living in a state of seclusion, enjoying only the society of a few individuals, whose admiration of his genius, and personal regard, led them to accommodate themselves to the peculiarities of his disposition. The aristocracy of Vienna appear at length to have become aware of his claims to their respect. In 1824, a meeting of some patrons and amateurs of the art took place, at which it was resolved to present an address to him, requesting him to reappear among them, and permit some of his works to be performed in his presence.

An address to this effect, with a number of noble and distinguished names attached to it, was presented to him; and he agreed to be present at the proposed concert. A great musical performance took place on the 7th of May, in the principal theatre of Vienna. The theatre was crowded to excess; and the appearance of the illustrious recluse was hailed with the utmost enthusiasm. He took his place at the side of the principal leader, and, with his original scores before him, indicated the times of the various movements. The strong interest excited by this concert induced the director of the theatre to make an offer to the composer of a certain consideration, if he would assist at another performance of the same music, which accordingly took place soon afterward. These were his last appearances in public.

In December, 1826, in consequence of travelling from the country to Vienna, in very inclement weather, Beethoven caught a cold, which was followed by an inflammation of the lungs. The attack produced such a degree of debility, that symptoms of dropsy appeared: and he labored under this disease until the 26th of March, 1827, when he expired after dreadful sufferings.

Beethoven's personal character and manners have been represented in very different lights in the various accounts which have been given of him. In Russell's "Tour in Germany," published in 1824, an able and interesting work, which has met with much attention from the public, we find the following description, which, at all events, is lively and graphic:—

"Though not an old man, Beethoven is lost to society, in consequence of his extreme deafness. The neglect of his person which he exhibits gives him a somewhat wild appearance. His features are strong and prominent; his face is full of rude energy; his hair, which neither comb nor scissors seem to have visited for years, overshadows his broad brow in a quantity and confusion to which only the snakes round a Gorgon's head offer a parallel. His general behavior does not ill accord with the unpromising exterior. Except when he is among his chosen friends, kindness or affability are not his characteristics. Even among his oldest friends, he must be humored like a wayward child. He

has always a small paper-book with him, and what conversation takes place is carried on in writing. In this, too, although it is not lined, he instantly jots down any musical idea which strikes him. These notes would be utterly unintelligible, even to another musician, for they have thus no comparative value; he alone has in his own mind the thread by which he brings out of this labyrinth of dots and circles the richest and most astounding harmonies. The moment he is seated at the piano, he is evidently unconscious that there is anything in existence but himself and his instrument; and, considering how very deaf he is, it seems impossible that he should hear all he plays. Accordingly, when playing *very piano*, he often does not bring out a single note. He hears it himself in the 'mind's ear.' While his eye, and the almost imperceptible motion of his fingers, show that he is following out the strain through all its dying gradations, the instrument is actually as dumb as the musician is deaf.

"I have heard him play; but to bring him thus far required some management, so great is his horror at being anything like exhibited. Had he been plainly asked to do the company that favor, he would have flatly refused; he had to be cheated into it. Every person left the room except Beethoven and the master of the house, one of his most intimate acquaintances. These two carried on a conversation in the paper-book about bank-stock. The gentleman, as if by chance, struck the keys of the piano beside which they were sitting, gradually began to run over one of Beethoven's own compositions, made a thousand errors, and speedily blundered a passage so thoroughly, that the composer condescended to stretch out his hand and put him right. It was enough; his hand was on the piano: his companion immediately left him on some pretext, and joined the rest of the company, who, in the next room, were patiently waiting the issue of this tiresome conjuration. Beethoven, left alone, seated himself at the piano. At first he only struck now and then a few hurried and interrupted notes, as if afraid of being detected in a crime; but gradually he forgot everything else, and ran on during half an hour in a fantasy, in a style extremely varied, and marked by the most abrupt transitions. The amateurs were enraptured; to the uninitiated it was more interesting to observe how the music of the man's soul passed over his countenance. He seems to feel the bold, the commanding, and the impetuous, more than what is soothing and gentle. The muscles of the face swell, and its veins start out; the wild eye rolls doubly wild; the mouth quivers—and Beethoven looks like a wizard overpowered by the demons whom he himself had called up."

Of the fidelity of this description, in so far as it is derived from Mr. Russell's own observation, the character of the writer leaves no room for doubt. But, in speaking from hearsay, he was probably repeating the idle gossip of Vienna respecting a great man who was talked of by everybody, but was personally known to very few. Beethoven was extremely reserved in the company of strangers; blunt and abrupt in his address; and accustomed to express his feelings and opinions with a freedom not very consistent with the established usages of society. His manners and habits were those of a recluse, excluded by a heavy calamity from the cheerful and social intercourse with the world, and wounded by unmerited neglect.

Beethoven's literary attainments were respectable. He was well acquainted with the literature of his own country, and read, in the original language, the Italian poets. He also understood English, and had a knowledge of the best authors of England. During the illness which terminated in his death, he amused himself, in his intervals of ease, by reading the ancient Greek writers, and the novels of Sir Walter Scott. In the society of his friends, when he was able to shake off his habitual reserve, his conversation was animated, full of interesting anecdotes, and acute observations. He was incapable of the slight-

est duplicity or meanness, and was esteemed by all who knew him for his high principles, and the undeviating rectitude of his conduct.

As a musician, Beethoven must be classed along with Handel, Haydn, and Mozart. He alone is to be compared to them in the magnitude of his works, and their influence on the state of the art. Though he has written little in the department to which Handel devoted all the energies of his mind, yet his spirit, more than that of any other composer, is akin to that of Handel. In his music there is the same gigantic grandeur of conception, the same breadth and simplicity of design, and the same absence of minute finishing and petty details. In Beethoven's harmonies, the masses of sound are equally large, ponderous, and imposing, as those of Handel, while they have a deep and gloomy character peculiar to himself. As they swell in our ears, and grow darker and darker, they are like the lowering storm-cloud on which we gaze till we are startled by the flash, and appalled by the thunder which bursts from its bosom. Such effects he has specially produced in his wonderful symphonies; they belong to the tone of his mind, and are without a parallel in the whole range of music. Even where he does not wield the strength of a great orchestra—in his instrumental concerted pieces, his quartettes, his trios, and his sonatas for the pianoforte, there is the same broad and massive harmony, and the same wild, unexpected, and startling effects. Mingled with these, in his orchestral as well as his chamber music, there are strains of melody inexpressibly impassioned and ravishing—strains which do not merely please, but dissolve in pleasure—which do not merely move, but overpower with emotion. Of these divine melodies, a remarkable feature is their extreme simplicity: a few notes, as artless as those of a national air, are sufficient to awaken the most exquisite feelings.

The music of Beethoven is stamped with the peculiarities of the man. When slow and tranquil in its movement, it has not the placid composure of Haydn, or the sustained tenderness of Mozart; but it is grave, and full of deep and melancholy thought. When rapid, it is not brisk or lively, but agitated and changeful—full of “sweet and bitter fancies”—of storm and sunshine—of bursts of passion sinking into the subdued accents of grief, or relieved by transient gleams of hope or joy.

In his chamber compositions—his quintettes, quartettes, and trios, for bowed instruments, and especially in his splendid series of works for the pianoforte—Beethoven has left to the amateurs of music an inexhaustible fund of delight. He has shown that this instrument has powers which it was formerly not imagined to possess, and has made it the means of producing effects which neither those who have preceded, nor those who have followed him, have been able to reach.

Beethoven produced only one opera, *Fidelio*. In its deep dramatic interest, and its effects on the feelings, this opera is unsurpassed. As a musical whole it is not equal to the still unrivalled *Don Giovanni* of Mozart; though, in many of its parts, it does not yield, in either the beauty and expression of the melodies, the richness and ingenuity of the choral and concerted pieces, or the power of the orchestral effects, even to that immortal production.

Beethoven died in his fifty-seventh year—at an age when the physical strength is generally little impaired, and the mental faculties are in their full maturity and vigor; and during a considerable part of his comparatively short life, he suffered under the total deprivation of that sense which, above all others, is necessary to the musician. When this is remembered, and contrasted with the immense magnitude of what he has achieved in his art, Beethoven can not be looked upon as inferior in genius to any musician who has ever lived—not even to Handel himself.

GEORGE CANNING.

THE Right Hon. GEORGE CANNING, was born in London, England, April 11, 1770; his father was an Irish barrister, and was a man of talent and a poet, but he died in embarrassed circumstances, when his son was only a year old. The friends of his father first placed him at Hyde Abbey school, Winchester, and afterward at Eton, where he greatly distinguished himself as a scholar, and formed many connections which were of great service to him in his after-life. While at Eton, he displayed great skill as an author, in his contributions to the "Microcosm," a periodical work, conducted by the senior scholars. At Oxford also he distinguished himself, and proceeded thence to Lincoln's Inn, his oratorical talents suggesting the bar as the profession best adapted for him. The exhortations of his friend Sheridan, however, induced him to relinquish that intention, and to enter on the career of politics. In 1793, therefore, he obtained a seat in the house of commons, as member for Newport, in the Isle of Wight; and, in 1796, he was appointed under-secretary of state, and returned for the treasury borough of Wexford.

In 1798, he contributed some brilliant satirical pieces, among which are New Morality, and parodies on Darwin and Southey, to the Anti-Jacobin, a weekly paper. In 1799, he married Miss Scott, the sister of the duchess of Portland, and this marriage put him in possession of an ample fortune. He resigned with Mr. Pitt, and returned again to office with Mr. Pitt, as treasurer of the navy; and held that situation till the death of the premier. After the death of Pitt, and the dissolution of the coalition ministry of Fox and Grenville, Canning became foreign secretary in Perceval's administration; and to him may justly be ascribed the line of British policy in Spain, which destroyed the hopes of Napoleon, and led to his final overthrow; for, as he once emphatically declared, "his had been the hand which committed England to an alliance with Spain." Having, as it was alleged, unfairly endeavored to procure the removal of Lord Castlereagh from office, a duel took place, and both parties had to quit office.

In 1812 he was elected a member for the great commercial town of Liverpool; and in 1816 he again became minister, being appointed president of the board of control. In this situation he made himself extremely unpopular by his defence of the "six acts," and other no less obnoxious measures. On the return of Queen Caroline to England in 1820, Mr. Canning retired from office, that he might not have occasion to vote against her. This did not prevent his being appointed governor-general of India in 1822; and he had already made prepa-



Statue of George Canning.

rations for his departure, when the melancholy death of the marquis of Londonderry caused the seals of the foreign office to be delivered to Mr. Canning. In conjunction with Mr. Huskisson, he now advocated a course of both home and foreign policy, strikingly at variance with that of which he had for years been the wittiest and readiest, if not the most profound, defender. His new policy was as popular as his old had been obnoxious; and the earl of Liverpool being seized with paralysis, from which there was no hope of his recovery, Mr. Canning reached the grand object of his ambition—that of being the acknowledged head of the administration. But though the new premier was popular with the country, the party with whom he had in a great measure ceased to act, rendered his task a difficult one. The opposition to him was fierce, almost rancorous; and it was soon obvious that he was suffering in both mind and body from over-exertion and constant excitement. These, aggravating the effects of a severe cold, caught while attending the funeral of the duke of York, brought on a most painful inflammatory disease, which terminated his life at the age of fifty-seven, in 1827. Our engraving is a view of a colossal statue to the memory of Canning in bronze, in Palace Yard, London. The likeness is said to be excellent.

As an orator, Canning has rarely been excelled for finished elegance and classical taste; pouring forth his eloquence in a persuasive, impassioned, and fearless tone; or in a happy vein of caustic irony, demolishing the arguments of his opponents. His writings are characterized by the same qualities. That he was ambitious of place and power, and that during his political career he made some sacrifices of principle to expediency, no one will deny; but, as a statesman, his great aim was to uphold the honor of his country, and to pursue a liberal line of policy at home and abroad; while he was a decided enemy to all intermeddling with those institutions which the wisdom and experience of ages had built up and cemented.

WALTER SCOTT.

WALTER SCOTT, who is generally placed at the head of English novelists in the nineteenth century, was born at Edinburgh, in 1771. He entered the university of Edinburgh at the age of twelve years, but he did not attend regularly to his studies there, the most of his youth being passed between the pleasures of hunting, the study of the law, and an indulgence of his taste in reading old plays, romances, travels, and marvellous adventures. The antiquities and ancient poetry of Scotland seem to have early inflamed his imagination; he read the old chronicles, and made himself acquainted with the customs, obsolete laws, and even the traditions of individual families, and was versed in the localities and the superstitious belief of the inhabitants of the Scottish mountains. Thus he became an able antiquary, his natural genius rendered him a poet, and his correct judgment has subsequently caused him to be regarded as the patron of literature.

On the 10th of July, 1792, about three months before he had completed his twenty-first year, he passed advocate at the Scottish bar, after the usual examinations. After the breaking out of the war with France, and when the apprehensions of foreign invasion led to the enrolment of yeomanry and volunteer militia throughout every part of the country, the young barrister entered into the martial feeling of the times with great enthusiasm. He filled the post of quartermaster of the Edinburgh light dragoons. Being an excellent horse-



Walter Scott, from a Bust by Chantrey.

man, in spite of his lameness, and an exceedingly zealous officer, he distinguished himself in this favorite vocation. Sir Walter was by no means a precocious author in either verse or prose. He had reached his twenty-fifth year before he had given any indications of the peculiar talents which were destined to render him the most popular and voluminous writer of his age.

He made his debut as an original author in "Specimens of Ancient Scottish Poetry," which had great success. His next work, the "Lay of the Last Minstrel," was received with still greater favor. "Marmion," and "Rokeby" followed, and gave a climax to his poetical reputation; but it was soon afterward eclipsed by the rise of Lord Byron's poetical star, his vigorous and impassioned verses diverting the public poetical taste into an entirely new channel. Subsequently appeared "Paul's Letters to his Kinsfolk" and the "Battle of Waterloo," the first successful, the latter a failure. His novels, however, are his great passport to fame. Those masterly productions, on which criticism would be out of place, need only be enumerated: "Waverley," "Tales of my Landlord," "Ivanhoe," "The Monastery," "The Abbott," "Quentin Durward," "Peveril of the Peak," "Woodstock," "Rob Roy," "The Heart of Mid Lothian," "Chronicles of the Canongate," "Kenilworth," "Red Gauntlet," &c., &c. Our restricted limits prevent us from detailing, with anything like order or minuteness, the numerous engagements of this highly-gifted and industrious man; suffice it, therefore, to say, that from the commencement of his literary career in 1792 to the year of his decease, he was constantly producing some popular

or talented work, and that he reaped an abundant harvest from the scattered seeds of his genius.

His patrimonial estate was also considerable; and, in 1799, he obtained the preferment of sheriff of Selkirkshire, worth about three hundred pounds a year; which sum was considerably increased in 1806, by his being appointed one of the principal clerks of the session in Scotland. He accordingly, in 1811, removed six or seven miles below his former residence on the Tweed, where he purchased a farm of about one hundred acres, for the purpose of having some more quiet outdoor occupation than field sports, and built a mansion, to which he gave the appellation of Abbotsford. Here he continued to reside, exercising the most open hospitality, and receiving the homage of admiration from all parts of the world, while he pursued his literary labors with unremitting activity. In 1821, he was made a baronet by George IV., after the coronation; in giving effect to the splendid and antiquarian costumes of which, it appears, his taste and erudition were consulted.

In 1825, the firm of Constable & Co., at Edinburgh, having projected a cheap series of original and selected works, engaged Sir Walter to compose a "Life of Bonaparte." It was in progress when these publishers became bankrupts, and by that unhappy failure Scott found himself involved, on their behalf, for accommodation bills to the enormous amount of one hundred and twenty thousand pounds. The estate of Abbotsford had been settled on Sir Walter's eldest son on his marriage, and it was therefore beyond the reach of the creditors; but though he had very little property to answer the immense amount of his debts, there was still a vast source of profit remaining—his literary talents. "Gentlemen," said he to his creditors, "time and I against any two. Let me take this good ally into company, and I believe I shall be able to pay you every farthing." He further proposed, in their behalf, to insure the sum of twenty-two thousand pounds, upon his life, which proposal was accepted; and then he sat down, at the age of fifty-five years, to the task of redeeming, by the exertion of his talents as a public writer, a debt exceeding one hundred thousand pounds!

In the autumn of 1826, he visited Paris, in order to prosecute researches into several local and other details relating to the subject of his work, which appeared in the summer of 1827, in nine volumes octavo; and realised the sum of twelve thousand pounds, being at the rate of thirty-three pounds a day for the time he had devoted to it. Though from the time of the publication of "Waverley," Sir Walter had been generally considered the author of the "Scotch novels," yet he had managed to preserve his incognito by various modes of evasion and half-denials whenever the subject was publicly mooted; and the author, whoever he might prove to be, was fancifully styled the "Great Unknown." At length, the mystery was solved. At the annual dinner of the Theatrical Fund Association in 1827, Sir Walter, in returning thanks for the honor which the company did him by drinking his health, unreservedly declared that they were wholly and solely his own compositions. By the republication of the former novels, in a cheap form, with new notes and prefaces; and by new works, viz. "Tales of a Grandfather," a "History of Scotland," in Dr. Lardner's Encyclopædia, "Letters on Demonology and Witchcraft," in the Family Library, &c., he had paid, in part of his liabilities, fifty-four thousand pounds; and his creditors presented to him, personally, the library, manuscripts, curiosities, and plate, which had once been his own, as a token of their gratified feelings.

Early in 1831, symptoms of paralysis began to be manifested, and in the autumn his physicians recommended an excursion to Italy, as the means of delaying that illness which too obviously approached. A passage to Malta, in the Barham ship-of-war, was obtained for him, and he reached Naples by that route, December 27. In April, 1832, he went to Rome, inspected the classical

antiquities of that city with great interest, and visited Tivoli, Albani, and Frascati. Feeling, however, that his strength was rapidly decreasing, he determined upon returning, with all possible speed, wishing to die in his native country. On his arrival in London it was found that medical assistance was now useless; all hope of his recovery had fled; and at his own anxious desire he was conveyed by sea to Newhaven, where he landed on the 9th of July, reached Abbotsford on the 11th, and, after lingering two months in a state of almost total insensibility, he died on the 21st of September, 1832. He was interred in his family burial aisle amidst the ruins of Dryburgh Abbey—a spot of great picturesque beauty, lying on Tweed side about half way between Smalholm, the scene of his simple infancy, and Abbotsford, the stately home of his latter years.

It is by far the greatest glory of Sir Walter Scott, that he shone equally as a good and virtuous man, as he did in his capacity of the first fictitious writer of the age. His behavior through life was marked by undeviating integrity and purity, insomuch that no scandalous whisper was ever yet circulated against him. The traditional recollection of his early life is burdened with no stain of any sort. His character as a husband and a father, is altogether irreproachable. Indeed, in no single relation of life does it appear that he ever incurred the least blame. His good sense, and good feeling united, appear to have guided him aright through all the difficulties and temptations of life; and, even as a politician, though blamed by many for his exclusive sympathy in the cause of established rule, he was always acknowledged to be too benevolent and too unobtrusive to call for severe censure. Along with the most perfect uprightness of conduct, he was characterized by extraordinary simplicity of manners. He was invariably gracious and kind, and it was impossible ever to detect in his conversation a symptom of his grounding the slightest title to consideration upon his literary fame, or of his even being conscious of it.

WILLIAM WIRT.

WILLIAM WIRT was the youngest son of an emigrant from Switzerland, and was born in Bladensburg, Maryland, on the eighth of November, 1772. His father died while he was an infant, and his mother before he was eight years old. He then became the ward of an uncle, who placed him at a grammar school kept by a Mr. Hunt, in the county of Montgomery, where he remained from 1781, to 1785, in which period he studied the Greek and Latin languages, and indulged in much desultory reading, chiefly of classical authors, of which his teacher had a good collection. During the next year and a half he was a private teacher in the family of Mr. Benjamin Edwards, whose son Ninian, afterward governor of Illinois, had been his school-mate; and, in 1789, on account of impaired health, he went to Augusta, Georgia, where he spent the following winter. On his return to Maryland he commenced the study of the law, and in 1792, he was licensed to practice, and commenced his professional career at Culpeper courthouse in Virginia.

He was now twenty-one years of age, with good health, a handsome person, pleasing address, and great fluency in conversation and in debate. From the first he was eminently successful in the courts; and marrying in 1795, a daughter of Dr. Gilmer, of Charlottesville, and about the same time becoming acquainted and contracting friendships with Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Madison, and other eminent men, he had before him the promise of a prosperous and happy life.



Portrait of William Wirt.

The death of his wife, however, in 1799, interrupted his pursuits, and for a change of scene he went to Richmond, where he was chosen clerk of the house of delegates. The respect which he acquired during three terms of service in this body was so great, that upon a new organization of the judiciary in 1802, when he was but twenty-nine years of age, he was chosen chancellor of the eastern district of the state. He removed to Williamsburgh, but finding the profits of his office less than his probable income as an advocate, and confident of his ability to acquire a higher distinction in a different position, he resigned it at the end of a few months; and having married a daughter of Colonel Gamble, of Richmond, and passed another winter in that city, during which he wrote "The British Spy," he selected Norfolk as his place of residence, and there resumed the practice of his profession.

At the end of three years Mr. Wirt returned again to Richmond, where, in the winter of 1807, he was retained under the direction of President Jefferson to assist the attorney-general of the United States in the celebrated prosecution of Aaron Burr for treason. In this remarkable cause Mr. Wirt immortalized himself as an orator, and evinced his love of rural beauty and his high appreciation of domestic bliss, in the vivid picture which he drew of Blannerhasset—the dupe of Burr—and his family scenes at his lovely home, on an island which bore his name, in the Ohio river.

In 1808, he was elected to represent the city of Richmond in the house of

delegates, and he acquired new distinction by his labors in that body; but though often invited to do so he would never after leave the path of his profession. He took a deep interest in the war of 1812, sustaining the administration of Mr. Madison with all the power of his pen, name and influence, and actually raised a corps of flying artillery. But, although for a time in the tented field, panting for an opportunity of doing battle against the invaders of his country, yet circumstances did not favor this desire.

In 1816, he finished the "Life of Patrick Henry." The scanty materials, and their uncertain character, required an effort of labor and patience rarely demanded of an author, and he deserves well of his country, for thus redeeming from the obscurity to which they were fast hastening, the stirring incidents and peculiar characteristics of so remarkable a man. Had the work been left undone to this day, many of the facts on which it is built would have slumbered in the graves of Henry's compatriots, from whose memory they were gleaned.

In 1817, Mr. Wirt was called by President Monroe to the office of attorney-general of the United States, which he accepted with a reluctance which was an unaffected and mature sentiment. He coveted no political honor. His thoughts were turned toward a life which was to derive its pleasures from the domestic circle, and its fame from private pursuits. He refused to be a candidate for the United States senate in 1815, presenting a rare instance of a lawyer and orator—abundantly able to reap the laurels of honor from any field—refusing to accept an honorable theatre for forensic achievements, and a sure avenue to enduring renown.

He held the office of attorney-general for twelve years, from 1817 to 1829, covering nearly the whole of Mr. Monroe's and of Mr. Adams' administrations, and from the moment when he entered upon its duties, to the close of his public career, his fame continued to elevate and expand, until he was regarded, by the soundest jurists and most talented of the profession, as one of the ablest legal advocates, the most accomplished orators of his time, and for many years he occupied a commanding eminence in a galaxy of legal learning, eloquence, and wit, rarely equalled, and never surpassed, in any age or country.

In the year 1829, Mr. Wirt removed to Baltimore and devoted himself to his profession—made valuable contributions to literature, and enjoyed the sweets of domestic life, surrounded by such a class of friends and admirers as seldom blesses the declining years of genius and well-earned reputation. In 1832, he was sustained by a portion of his fellow-citizens as a candidate for president of the United States, yet had he consulted his own desires, against those of his friends, he would never have been a candidate, and earnestly contemplated retiring from the field before the canvass. From the death of his first wife, his mind had assumed a religious tendency, which ripened into a fervent Christian hope, which cheered him in the final hour. He died at Baltimore, February 18th, 1834, in the sixty-second year of his age.

In the supreme court, Mr. Webster, in announcing his death, remarked, "One of the oldest, one of the ablest, one of the most distinguished members of this bar, has departed this mortal life—William Wirt is no more! He has this day closed a professional career among the longest and most brilliant which the distinguished members of the profession in the United States have at any time accomplished. Unsullied in everything which regards professional honor and integrity, patient of labor, and rich in those stores of learning, which are the rewards of patient labor and patient labor only—and if equalled, yet certainly allowed not to be excelled, in fervent, animated, and persuasive eloquence—he has left an example, which those who seek to raise themselves to great heights of professional eminence, will, hereafter, emulously study. Fortunate, indeed, will be the few who shall imitate it successfully."



CHARLES FOURIER.

CHARLES FOURIER was born at Besançon, in France, on the 7th of April, 1772. His father was a merchant and magistrate of the city of Besançon. Fourier received a collegiate education in his native place and at Dijon, where he distinguished himself in his studies, especially in geography, botany, and music.

After completing his studies, Fourier was placed in a commercial house at Rouen; and in passing through Paris, he was struck with what he termed the mysteries of commerce. On asking the price of some apples, which were common in his native town, he was surprised to find it what he deemed exorbitantly high: eight cents was asked for an apple sold for one cent per dozen in the country. This ninety-six-fold difference between the wholesale price of the fruit where it was gathered, and the retail price where it was sold, struck him as a shameful example of the "extortions of commerce." He was, however, doomed to be a merchant; and in 1793, after the death of his father, he commenced business, with about twenty thousand dollars, in Lyons. In 1796, he was ruined by the civil war in which Lyons resisted the army of the French national convention. He was then obliged to join the army as a private soldier, and was drafted into the eighth regiment of "Chasseurs à Cheval," which was attached to the army of the Rhine and Moselle, where Fourier remained about two years; not without profiting by all that could be learned of scientific evolutions, as his writings indicate, when treating of gymnastic exercises and the disciplines of education. He also paid great attention to the the-

ory of music during his connection with the army; but his health began to sink, and he obtained his release as an invalid.

In 1798, Fourier engaged as clerk in a large commercial house at Marseilles. Here, again, he was shocked by the customs of commerce. His employers were very extensive importers of grain; and he was employed by them, on one occasion, during a period of great scarcity and famine, to conduct the operation of throwing a very large quantity of damaged rice into the sea, by night, that the population might not witness this calamitous result. The rice had been spoiled from being kept too long, in order to increase the scarcity and run up prices.

These particular occurrences, in the midst of the general turmoil of that revolutionary period in France, kept Fourier's mind constantly bent upon questions of social, commercial, and political organization and progress. In 1799, he gained an insight into what he deemed a clew to the whole problem. His studies then assumed a special form, and he began to construct his theory of universal unity, from which he deduced his plans of practical association. In 1803, he published various articles in one of the Lyons journals; and, in 1808, a general prospectus of his theory, under the title of "*La Theorie des Quatre Mouvements*" ("Theory of the Four Movements"). This was a volume of four hundred pages, which Fourier withdrew almost immediately from circulation.

Little is known of Fourier's habits or his movements from 1808 to 1815, except a few incidents mentioned by himself, which lead us to suppose that he was much absorbed in study. In one of his unpublished MSS. he says, in reference to the long interval which elapsed between his first and second publications: "It was well that I deferred the publication of my theory, for it was not until 1814 that I discovered the principal laws of equilibrium in combined associative harmony, and other branches of transcendental theory. It was not until the year 1819 that I discovered the possibility of organizing associative unity without disturbing the present laws of marriage."

"My commercial duties had always prevented me from giving that undivided attention to my discovery which its infinite details required. The stagnation, however, in which mercantile affairs were plunged by the political events of 1814 and 1815 induced me to retire from business, and devote my time exclusively to study. In 1816, I commenced the preparation of materials for publication, but the problems to be solved were so diversified and numerous—the subject so immense—that I could not succeed in bringing them within the limits of an ordinary book. Twelve months were lost in trying to condense the matter, and improve the plan of distribution. At length I fixed upon a plan of partial publication, which contained about one quarter of the whole theory, but sufficient for all purposes of practical association on a simple scale."

During the "Hundred Days" of Napoleon's reign (in 1815), Fourier was placed at the head of the statistical department of the prefecture or provincial government of Lyons, by his namesake, the count Fourier; but after the second restoration of the Bourbon family, everything was changed again, and Fourier retired from Lyons to Tallissieu in the autumn of that year, to pass the winter in his sister's family. From Tallissieu he went to Belley to reside with his other sister, and there he remained from 1815 until 1821, writing out his work on universal unity, the principal part of which was published in 1822, under the title of "The Domestic Agricultural Association," and "The Theory of the Universal Unity." This work develops his theory and plans of association, interspersed with a variety of speculations on philosophical and metaphysical questions.

In 1823, Fourier went to Paris, to call the attention of the press and of the public to his theory of association. He failed, however, in this object; and, in 1829, he published an abridgment in one volume, under the title of "*Le*

Nouveau Monde Industriel et Sociétaire ("The New Industrial and Societary World"). This brought him somewhat into notice; and, in 1830, when the revolution broke out in Paris, he was in negotiation with the baron Capel, minister of public works, for an experiment of his plan of association, under the patronage of the French government. The flight of King Charles X. and his ministers put an end to Fourier's hopes on that occasion. The St. Simonians began their public lectures at that time, and some of their adepts joined Fourier in 1832, to form a school in Paris, and establish a weekly journal, called "*Le Phalanstère, ou la Réforme Industrielle*." Some of his partisans bought an estate at Condé sur Vègres, near Rambouillet, and commenced a practical experiment of association, but were obliged to suspend their operations for want of money to complete them.

In 1835, Fourier published an octavo volume, called "*La Fausse Industrie*," and a second volume of this work was in the press at the time of his death, which occurred at Paris, October 11, 1837, in his sixty-sixth year. He was never married.

The personal appearance and genius of Fourier are summed up in the following words by his friend and admirer Mr. Brisbane: "He was of middle stature; his frame was rather light, but possessed that elasticity and energy which denote strength of constitution and great intellectual activity. His complexion was fair, and his hair, when young, light-brown. His forehead was very high, and rather narrow; his eyes large, of a mingled blue and gray; his nose large and high; and his lips extremely thin and closely compressed.

"The expression of the countenance of Fourier was one of self-dependence, of great intensity, of determined energy, and of inflexible firmness and tenacity, but softened by thoughtfulness and profound contemplation. He was entirely unassuming in his manners; his mien was that of cold, unapproachable simplicity; he was thoughtful, reserved, and silent, which, together with his natural firmness of character, counterbalanced his unpretending simplicity, and prevented all approach to familiarity, even on the part of his most devoted disciples. Not a shadow of vanity, pride, or haughtiness, was perceptible in him; his own personality seemed sunk and lost in the vastness and universality of the great truths which he had discovered, and which he was the instrument of making known to mankind.

"If we were permitted to pass our judgment upon the character of Fourier's genius, we would say he possessed three leading mental qualifications: First, great powers of perception and observation, and a delicate sentiment for all material harmonies, which generally accompanies the possession of those powers. Nothing escaped his observation; he was attentive to the slightest details; and, with a strong memory and a methodical classification of facts, he was master of everything he ever saw. If he entered any building, he remarked the peculiarities of distribution, its beauties, defects, wherein it could be improved, &c.; his walking-stick was regularly marked off in feet and inches, and everything remarkable which met his eye was at once reduced to measurement and calculation. Secondly, he possessed immense powers of reflection, or powers of comparison, criticism, and analysis, together with the power of combining and generalizing facts and results. His capacity for the most minute analysis, and the broadest and most universal synthesis, was truly amazing, the proofs of which are met with in almost every page of his works; he possessed also, to a remarkable extent, the faculty of intuitive conception (or which we will call such, for want of a better name), which seems to be a gift accompanying the highest order of genius. Thirdly, he possessed in an extraordinary degree the highest class of moral sentiments, such as benevolent sympathy, which extended to the whole human race, and a love of justice, which in him seemed universal."



LOUIS PHILIPPE.

LOUIS PHILIPPE, late king of the French, the eldest son of the duke of Orleans, better known in the revolutionary times as Philippe Egalité, and of Marie, only daughter of the duke of Penthièvre, was born in Paris, October 6, 1773. Conducted under the care of Madame de Genlis, his education was based on enlightened principles, and was directed equally to the development of the physical, moral, and intellectual nature of the pupil. While being instructed in the ancient and modern languages, the various branches of learning and science, Louis Philippe and his brothers were inured to bodily fatigue; and gardening, turning, basket-making, and carpentry, ranked among the number of their accomplishments.

At the age of seventeen, his father introduced him to the Jacobin club. In 1791, having received the command of a regiment of dragoons, he set out to join it at Valenciennes; and war being declared against Austria, he made his first campaign in 1792, fighting at Valmy at the head of the troops confided to him by Kellermann, September 20th; and afterward, on the 6th of November, gaining great distinction at Jemappes under Dumourier.

Meanwhile the Revolution was hastening to its crisis. In 1793, Louis XVI.* was carried to the scaffold; and a few months afterward, when the duke of Orleans, notwithstanding his connection with the revolutionary cause, shared the same fate, Louis Philippe, duke of Chartres, had all his worst apprehensions of a reign of terror realized, by a summons to himself to appear before the committee of public safety. He instantly fled to the French frontier, escaped into the Austrian territories, and refusing an invitation to enter into that service, proceeded as a traveller toward Switzerland, where he met with his sister Adelaide and Madame de Genlis, who had also fled thither for safety.

The wanderings of Louis Philippe in Switzerland, Hungary, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and America, are as familiar to the public as any nursery-tale, and will be narrated and remembered as long as romance continues to exercise its sway over the human mind. While he remained in Europe, Louis Philippe refused several invitations to take up arms against France; and, on the 24th of September, 1796, he sailed from the Elbe for the United States, where he arrived in safety, and was soon after joined by his brothers Montpensier and Beaujolais. His residence and travels in America continued till 1800, in the beginning of which year he arrived at Falmouth, England, and took up his abode on the banks of the Thames at Twickenham.

His brother, the duke of Montpensier, died in England in 1807, and on returning in the following year from the burial of his other brother, the count Beaujolais, in Malta, Louis Philippe received an invitation from the king of Naples to visit the royal family at Palermo. During his residence at the Neapolitan court, he gained the affections of the princess Amelia, the second daughter of the king, to whom he was married in November, 1809—his mother, the duchess of Orleans, who had been released from her thralldom in Spain, being present at the nuptials. Palermo now became the residence of Louis Philippe, and the scene of a domestic tranquillity to which he had long been a stranger. The abdication of Napoleon in 1814 introduced a new change in his fortunes and he returned to Paris after an absence of twenty-one years.

The return of Napoleon from Elba scattered the Bourbons once more, and Louis Philippe again repaired to England, till the expiration of "the hundred days," when he returned to France, and entered into all the honors due to his rank. A coldness which arose between him and the administration of Louis XVIII.† led to his temporary retirement to England; but in 1817 he took up his

* Louis XVI., the son of Louis the dauphin, and of Maria Josephine, daughter of Frederick Augustus, king of Poland, was born in 1754, and immediately created duke of Berri. On the death of his father, in 1765, he became the heir to the throne; and in 1770 he married Maria Antoinette, daughter of Francis I. and Maria Theresa of Austria, a princess of great beauty and accomplishments. In 1774, on the death of his grandfather, Louis XV., he succeeded to the throne, at which period France was in a deplorable state—the people heavily taxed, and the treasury empty. In May, 1789, the states-general assembled. On the 14th of July of that year the Bastille was taken by the Parisians, and soon after the royal family forced to flee to Versailles. In February, 1790, Louis accepted the new constitution; but feeling himself a mere prisoner in Paris, he attempted to escape from the Tuilleries on the night of June 21, 1791, accompanied by his family. At Varennes, however, his person was recognised, and he was brought back to Paris, where he became a prisoner in his own palace, which, being taken by the people, and the Swiss guards put to the sword, the royal family sought refuge in the national assembly, who sent them to the Temple. Being tried before the national convention, sentence of death was pronounced against the king January 17, 1793, and on the 21st he was beheaded. He was an amiable and well-meaning prince. His queen was also beheaded on the 16th of October following. His son, a lad of eight years, sometimes called Louis XVII., soon after died, as is supposed by poison.

† Louis XVIII., STANISLAUS XAVIER, surnamed *le Desiré*, second son of the dauphin (son of Louis XV.), was born in 1755, and was originally known as the count of Provence. At the accession of his brother Louis XVI., in 1774, he received the title of Monsieur; and after the death of his nephew, in 1795, from which time he reckoned his reign, he took the name and title of Louis XVIII., king of France and Navarre. While young, he was retired and studious. In 1791, he fled to Belgium, and next year he and the count d'Artois joined the Prussians with six thousand cavalry. He soon after fled to Italy, and thence to Germany, Russia, Poland, and Britain. May 3, 1814, he entered Paris as king, taking the questionable surname of "The Desired." March 1, 1815, Napoleon landed from Elba, and on the 20th Louis fled to Belgium. June 18 the battle of Waterloo was fought, and on the 9th of July Louis was reinstated on the throne, all the relations of Napoleon being exiled. Louis was fond of the pleasures of the table, and died of paralysis of his legs, September 16, 1824, aged sixty-nine.

permanent abode in France, and, while abstaining from politics, devoted himself to the education of his family, and the patronage of literature and the arts, until the revolution of 1830 and abdication and flight of Charles X * placed him on the throne.

The events of that period and the subsequent reign of Louis Philippe belong more to history than biography. Suffice it here to say, the first few years after his accession were spent in repressing the republican spirit that still lingered among the descendants of the first French revolutionists, and in consolidating the throne upon a purely constitutional basis. The various combinations that were entered into for overthrowing his government were detected and suppressed; repeated attempts to assassinate the king himself had proved abortive; and the speculator on probabilities might have justly anticipated that Louis Philippe would have spent the remainder of his days in peace, and have bequeathed to his family the magnificent heritage of a kingdom. But this was not to be.

The close of 1847 and the beginning of 1848 had been signalized in France by strenuous efforts, on the part of the opposition, to obtain from the government a measure of "electoral reform." But the Guizot administration turned a deaf ear to their appeals, and went so far as to interdict a banquet which had been fixed to be held in Paris, in honor of this movement, on February 21, 1848. A slight riot which took place on that day soon swelled into a formidable insurrection. In vain the king now offered to change his ministry, and to yield to the popular demands. Even his abdication, February 23, in favor of his grandson (the count de Paris, eldest son of the duke of Orleans, who was thrown from his carriage and killed in 1842), came too late: he saw himself compelled to flight.

Hastily quitting Paris with the queen, who had shared with him so many dangers, Louis Philippe made his way to the seashore, whence he escaped, in disguise, for England, and landed at Newhaven, in the county of Sussex, March 3, 1848. He then took up his residence at Claremont, with an occasional sojourn at Richmond or St. Leonard's, and for a time appeared to bear up manfully under the disasters which had befallen his house. But, in the spring of 1850, a great change came over him: his naturally powerful constitution gradually gave way; and, after lingering a few months in great physical debility, he expired at Claremont, August 26, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. His remains were deposited in the vault of a chapel at Weybridge, which he had been in the habit of attending—there to repose until, according to the inscription on his tomb, "*in patriam avitos inter cineres Deo adjuvante transferantur.*"

* CHARLES X., or CHARLES-PHILIPPE DE BOURBON (known as Count d'Artois until the accession of his brother Louis XVIII., and afterward as Monsieur), was the fifth and youngest son of the dauphin, son of Louis XV., and was born in 1757. In early life he was profligate and haughty, thus comparing unfavorably with his elder brothers; and such was his unpopularity, that at the very outset of the Revolution he found it necessary for his personal safety to quit his native land. In 1773, he married the princess Maria Theresa, daughter of Victor Amadeus III., king of Sardinia, to whose court he now fled for refuge. He subsequently visited other parts of Europe, and eventually found an asylum with his brother Louis XVIII., first at Holyrood house, Edinburgh, and afterward at Hartwell, in England. On his succeeding to the throne of France in 1824, he was too illiberal to acquire the popularity which his predecessor had enjoyed. On the 25th of July, 1830, a general election having gone against the government, Charles X. issued his two fatal ordinances, one abolishing the freedom of the press, and the other changing the mode of election. A popular insurrection took place in Paris on the 28th, 29th, and 30th of July, 1830, which paved the way for Louis Philippe. The king retreated from St. Cloud to Rambouillet, where he offered to abdicate in favor of his grandson, the duke of Bordeaux, and requested from the provisional government a safe conduct to a seaport. Embarking at Cherbourg, he sailed for England, and for a time took up his residence at Lulworth castle, and then removed to Holyrood house, the scene of his former exile. There he remained about a twelvemonth; afterward he retired to the Austrian dominions; and died, in his eightieth year, at Goritz, in Illyria, November 4, 1837. The latter years of this monarch were passed in acts of superstitious devotion: he constantly wore hair-cloth next his skin, he fasted much, and frequently imposed upon himself, as a penance for some hasty expression, an absolute silence for several hours. The dukes d'Angoulême and de Berry were his sons.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, the ninth president of the United States, was born at Berkley, about twenty-five miles from Richmond, Virginia, on the 9th of February, 1773. His father, Benjamin Harrison, was an active patriot of the Revolution, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and was subsequently governor of Virginia. William Henry was the youngest of three sons, and the favorite of his father. After completing a collegiate course at Hampden Sydney, he was sent to Philadelphia to prosecute the study of medicine. He had scarcely arrived there, when the news of his father's death reached him, and damped his ardor for his profession. Contrary to the wishes and advice of his guardian (the celebrated Robert Morris the great financier of the Revolution), he resolved to enter the army; and having obtained from Washington an ensign's commission, he departed for the western wilderness, to engage in the Indian wars of that region. He reached Fort Washington (now Cincinnati) in time to hear of the defeat of the whites, and the slaughter of brave leaders and their men.

When General Wayne, in 1794, took the command in the northwest, young Harrison was soon noticed for his valor, and made one of his aids. He was promoted to captain; and after the treaty of Greenville, in 1795, he was left in command of Fort Washington. He soon after married the daughter of Judge Symmes, the proprietor of the Miami purchase, and, resigning his military commission, entered upon civil official duties as secretary of the northwestern territory.

In 1799, Harrison was elected the first delegate to Congress from the north-

western territory. Through his influence in Congress, such salutary regulations respecting the sale and occupancy of public lands at the west were effected that emigration rapidly filled the country with settlers. In 1800, Indiana was erected into a territory, and Harrison appointed governor thereof by President Adams. He was also superintendent of Indian affairs, and commander-in-chief of the militia. In 1803, President Jefferson appointed him sole commissioner for treating with the Indians, and in 1804, he negotiated a very favorable treaty with the Sacs and Foxes. Governor Harrison continued to be reappointed by every successive administration, at the earnest request of the inhabitants, to whom he had completely endeared himself, and held the office for thirteen years in succession. Intgole, the Shawnee chief, known as the prophet, and his brother, Tecumseh, set afoot their famous plan for a combined attack of the Indians of the north and south upon the whites, by which the latter were to be driven wholly out of the Mississippi valley. They daily increased in audacity, and committed many of the most barbarous outrages. In July, 1811, the conduct of the Indians had risen to such a height that it became absolutely necessary to take active measures against them, and Governor Harrison was authorized by the government to march forthwith against the prophet's town, but at the same time directed to use no force except such as was absolutely necessary. He accordingly set out with a force of about nine hundred men, and reached the prophet's town after a toilsome and dangerous march, on the 8th of November, 1811, at a place called Tippecanoe. The troops were ordered to rest in their clothes, and with loaded muskets with fixed bayonets by their side. At a quarter to four o'clock the anticipated night attack commenced, and the battle continued with terrific fierceness and slaughter until daylight, when the Indians were driven into a marsh and disappeared from the field. In this action General Harrison greatly distinguished himself, and its results were of the happiest character, as the Indians of the northwest, with the single exception of the Shawnees, came forward at once and proffered friendship and alliance.

Tecumseh, however, who had been absent when the battle of Tippecanoe was fought, now returned; and war having just been declared with Great Britain, exerted himself, in connection with the agents of the British government to renew hostilities with the whites.

Having been appointed brigadier-general, and invested with the entire command of the army of the northwest, General Harrison at once set about accomplishing the important object of the campaign, viz., the recapture of Detroit, the reduction of Fort Malden, and the protection of the whole northwestern frontier. On the 3d of May, 1813, the British and Indians, the latter under Tecumseh, attacked General Harrison at Fort Meigs, commencing with a bombardment which lasted five days; at length Harrison made a sortie upon the enemy, completely routing them in the space of forty-five minutes, although their force more than doubled his own. On the 27th of August the great battle of the Thames was fought, in which Harrison achieved another brilliant victory, and during which Tecumseh was killed, and six hundred of the enemy were taken prisoners. This glorious action, which virtually put an end to the war on the northwestern frontier, was received by the whole country with gratitude, and the fortunate general hailed with enthusiasm—among other testimonials, a resolution of praise and a gold medal being presented to him by Congress.

In 1816, General Harrison was elected to Congress from Ohio, and in 1819 to the senate of that state. In 1824 he was elected to the senate of the United States, and in 1828 was appointed minister plenipotentiary to the republic of Colombia. In 1835, he was nominated for the presidency, and received seventy-three electoral votes. In December, 1839, he was again nominated by the whig national convention, and elected in November, 1840. He was inaugura-

ted on the 4th of March following, and on the 17th issued his proclamation calling an extra session of Congress to take into consideration the financial condition of the country, which was to assemble on the 31st of May. Before that period arrived, General Harrison was seized with illness, which terminated his mortal existence, on the 4th of April, just one month after his inauguration being a little over sixty-eight years of age. He was the first president who had died in office, and the sudden blow was deeply felt by the whole nation. Funeral honors and other testimonials of public feeling were paid to his memory throughout the country. The body was interred in the congressional burying-ground at Washington, but was afterward removed to his family residence at North Bend, Ohio, where a neat monument marks the spot of his final resting-place.

In person, General Harrison was tall and slender. Although he never had the appearance of possessing a robust constitution, yet such had been the effects of habitual activity and temperance, that few men at his age enjoyed so much bodily vigor. He had a fine dark eye, remarkable for its keenness, fire, and intelligence, and his face was strongly expressive of the vivacity of his mind, and the benevolence of his character.

The most remarkable traits of General Harrison's character, and those by which he were distinguished throughout his whole career, were his disinterestedness, his regard for the rights and comforts of others, his generous disposition, his mild and forbearing temper, and his plain, easy, and unostentatious manner.

He had a most intimate knowledge of the history and foreign and domestic polity of the United States; and from the moderation of his political views and feelings as a party man, although firm, frank, and consistent, he was well calculated for the high station to which he was elected. His talents, although not of the highest order, were very respectable, and, united with an accurate knowledge of mankind, enabled him to acquit himself well in the various public stations to which he was called. He was a bold and eloquent orator; and he has left on record numerous evidences of his literary acquirements, among which besides his correspondence and public papers, we may mention his discourse before the Historical Society of Ohio (on the aborigines of the valley of the Ohio), published at Cincinnati, in 1839, which can not fail to please and instruct either the scholar, the lover of history, or the antiquary.



Residence of William Henry Harrison, North Bend, Ohio.



DANIEL O'CONNELL.

DANIEL O'CONNELL, of Darrynane abbey, the great Irish "agitator" or "liberator," was the son of a small landed proprietor in the county of Kerry, where he was born, August 6, 1775. Educated at the catholic college of St. Omer, in France, and at the Irish seminary at Douay, he at first intended to enter the church; but after the repeal by parliament of the act which prohibited Roman catholics from practising at the bar, he became a student of Lincoln's Inn in 1794, was admitted a barrister in 1798, and soon acquired a large practice, which yielded him a handsome income.

In 1809, O'Connell became connected with the associations which had the emancipation of the catholics for their object; and the powers of eloquence, together with the boundless zeal which he displayed in this cause, soon made him the idol of his catholic and the dread of his protestant countrymen. The vehemence with which he denounced the wrongs of his country frequently involved him in personal rencontres with his political opponents. In 1815,

having applied the epithet "beggarly" to the Dublin corporation, he was challenged by Alderman D'Esterre, who resented it as a personal insult. The challenge was accepted, and the parties repaired to Lord Ponsonby's seat, thirteen miles from the city, where Mr. D'Esterre fell mortally wounded at the first fire of his antagonist. The same year Mr. O'Connell received a hostile message from Mr. Robert Peel (then secretary for Ireland, and late British prime minister); but their meeting was prevented by the police, who had obtained knowledge of the affair; and Mr. O'Connell soon afterward resolved that he would thenceforward neither send nor accept a challenge for any injury that he might inflict or receive—a resolution to which he steadfastly adhered, declining, many years later, a hostile meeting with Hon. Andrew Stevenson, the American ambassador at London.

Several years elapsed before Mr. O'Connell's continued efforts for the enfranchisement of the Irish catholics were followed by any adequate result. But in 1823, in conjunction with Mr. Sheil, he founded a new catholic association, which soon extended over the whole of Ireland; and, from that period down to his decease, his personal history is identified with that of Ireland.

In 1828, stimulated by his friends, and encouraged by the strongest assurances of support, Mr. O'Connell resolved, notwithstanding the existing disabilities precluded all hopes of legal success, to become a candidate for a seat in parliament; and a vacancy having occurred in the representation of the county of Clare, he was nominated in opposition to Mr. (afterward Lord) Fitzgerald, who had represented that county for many years. A most violent contest ensued, at that time, and perhaps since, unparalleled in the history of electioneering. But Mr. Fitzgerald's own connections, the influence of the government, and the power of the gentry, were unavailing against the ardor and determination of Mr. O'Connell's friends; and on the 5th of July, 1828, he was returned to parliament by a large majority of the Clare electors. He lost no time in presenting himself at the table of the house of commons, and expressed his willingness to take the oath of allegiance; but, refusing the other oaths, he was ordered to withdraw. Discussions in the house and arguments at the bar ensued; the speedy close of the session, however, precluded any practical result. Agitation throughout every part of Ireland now assumed so formidable a character, that the English cabinet ministers apprehended a civil war, and early in the next session the Roman catholic relief bill was introduced and carried. Mr. O'Connell was therefore, in the month of April, 1829, enabled to sit for Clare without taking the objectionable oaths; but it was necessary that a new writ should issue, under which he was immediately re-elected.

At the death of George IV., in 1830, Mr. O'Connell withdrew from the representation of Clare, and was returned to the new parliament for the county of Waterford. In the house of commons, elected in 1831, he sat for his native county (Kerry). Dublin, the city in which the greater part of his life was spent, enjoyed his services as its representative from 1832 till 1836, when he was petitioned against and unseated, after a long contest, before a committee of the house of commons. He then for some time represented Kilkenny; but, at the general election in 1837, he was once more returned for the city of Dublin, and in 1841 for the county of Cork. He had thus a seat in the house of commons for eighteen years, in seven general parliaments, and for sixteen different constituencies.

In 1841, Mr. O'Connell was elected lord-mayor of Dublin. The return of the conservatives to power, under the administration of Sir Robert Peel, in the autumn of that year, was the signal for renewed agitation in Ireland. In the following year a repeal of the union with Great Britain was demanded by every parish and hamlet in Ireland; and in 1843 "monster meetings" were held on the royal hill of Tara, on the Curragh of Kildare, the rath of Mullaghmast, and

other renowned localities. A meeting for Clontarf was fixed for the 8th of October, when the government interfered, and the prosecutions commenced which will be fresh in the reader's recollection. Mr. O'Connell was sentenced to pay a fine of two thousand pounds sterling, and to be imprisoned for a year. This judgment was afterward reversed by the house of lords; but the prosecution had answered its purpose, O'Connell's credit as a politician was impaired, and the costs of his defence had nearly exhausted the funds of the repeal association. The return of the whigs to power in 1846, under Lord John Russell, and Mr. O'Connell's avowed adherence to them, introduced dissension among those with whom, for fifty years, he had possessed "a voice potential." The opposition which aforetime he could put down with a jest, or awe into silence with a frown, now irritated and subdued him.

On the 20th of January, 1847, Mr. O'Connell left his country for the last time. His health was very feeble; and it was evident that the labor of so many years, attended as it was with almost constant exposure, had nearly undermined his strong constitution: but he thought he was needed at his post, and deeming his own comfort of little consideration in comparison with the call of duty, he took his seat in the house of commons, of which he was still a member. Midnight legislation was more than he could bear. His medical advisers told him that nothing short of a change of atmosphere could restore his health. Accordingly, he proceeded to Paris, accompanied by his son Daniel and the Rev. Dr. Miley, intending to go to Rome. At every place where he stopped he was received with marked attention. His earthly pilgrimage terminated at Genoa, where he died on the evening of the 15th of May, 1847, in his seventy-second year.

O'Connell was exactly such a man as Ireland needed to appear in her behalf in parliament. He was her advocate. Participating in all their sympathies and anticipations, knowing from long intercourse with them the weight of their sufferings, he urged, with all the ardor becoming an advocate impressed with the justice of his cause, the emancipation of the Irish from their bondage. His theme and his capacity were indeed worthy of each other. Nor were his efforts unsuccessful. As years rolled on, he saw one after another of the chains which bound his people crumble into dust. Though, for the first two or three years of his parliamentary life, he was treated with scorn and contempt in the house of commons, he gradually turned the hearts of his enemies, and became the one who could command the most profound attention. When he rose to speak, the deepest silence pervaded the assembly, and continued till he had closed his speech, save when general applause shook the walls of the house. The thoughtless and indifferent were aroused by the truths, sad and fearful, that fell from his lips; the cold and proud were melted by his moving pathos; ministers themselves writhed beneath his dauntless eloquence. Neither did he exert himself altogether in behalf of Ireland. He warmly espoused all enlightened and liberal measures, and strove side by side with those who sought to ameliorate the criminal code.

In person, Mr. O'Connell was tall and athletic; his frame was muscular, especially about the shoulders, and he possessed great physical strength. His private character was very exemplary. He was a patient and affectionate parent, and he found in the associations of his family a pleasant relaxation from the wearing duties of public life. He was a man of untiring industry and perseverance, generous almost to profusion, charitable, open, and confiding. But all the common duties of his life, all his intercourse with his fellows, and his solitary musings, his strength and his talents, were made subservient to what he believed to be the great interests of his country. The only substantial literary achievement with which his name was connected are his "Memoirs of Ireland Native and Saxon."

RAMMOHUN ROY.

RAMMOHUN ROY, rajah, by birth a Bramin, and a man of the most enlightened mind, was born about the year 1776, at Borduan, in the province of Bengal. He received a good education, and was early taught the Persian and Arabic languages. He studied Euclid and Aristotle, and thus became acquainted with mathematics. His father trained him in the doctrine of his sect; but the son observing the diversities of opinion that existed on religion, not only among mussulmans and Christians, but even among his Hindu brethren, he determined on leaving his paternal home, for the purpose of investigating a subject on which he felt such a deep and paramount interest.

For a time he sojourned at Thibet; and on his return to Hindostan, he devoted himself to the study of the Sanscrit and other languages, the former of which, being the language of the Hindu sacred scriptures, a knowledge of it was necessary to his caste and profession as a Bramin. After this he was employed by the East India Company as principal native officer in the collection of the revenues in the district of Borduan.

On the death of his father and elder brother, about the year 1803, Rammohun Roy became possessed of a large estate, and he soon after fixed his residence where his ancestors had lived. About this time he appears to have commenced his plans of reforming the religion of his countrymen; and, on removing to Moorshedabad, he published, in Persian, a work entitled, "Against the Idolatry of all Religions." This raised up against him a host of enemies among the Mohammedans and Hindus, and in 1814 he returned to Calcutta, where he diligently applied himself to the study of the English language. He afterward translated from the Sanscrit into the Bengalee and Hindostanee languages the "Vedant," the principal book of Hindu theology; and prefixed to some chapters of the Vedas, which he afterward published, is a letter containing the following sentence: "The consequence of my long and uninterrupted researches into religious truth has been, that I have found the doctrines of Christ more conducive to moral principles, and better adapted for the use of rational beings, than any other which have come to my knowledge."

It is evident from his first work that he regarded with great disapprobation and disgust the monstrous and debasing system of idolatry embraced by his countrymen. A careful study of the sacred writings of the Hindus convinced him that the prevailing notions of a multiplicity of deities, and the superstitious devotion to the licentious and inhuman customs connected with them, were founded in utter ignorance or gross perversion of their religion. The original records appeared to him to inculcate a system of pure theism, which taught the being of *one* God; and that required of its professors a mental rather than an outward worship, with strict personal virtue. With these views of Hindu theology and morals, he was anxious to reform the creed and practice of his countrymen, and devoted his time and fortune to this benevolent object.

Rammohun Roy thus appears as a great and rare light to his ignorant and superstitious countrymen, who were in gross moral darkness and error. In the ancient writings which he studied (of three thousand years before), he found traces of the patriarchal religion, which was the belief of Abraham, Job, and others of their day, who had received instructions from their ancestors, extending back to Shem, and even to Noah.

With this information, and in the state of mind which it produced, perceiving the errors and absurdities of both idolatry and polytheism, and satisfied that the early sages of India taught a more just and rational religion—Rammohun Roy, having acquired a knowledge of Greek and Hebrew (as also of Latin), that he



Rammohun Roy

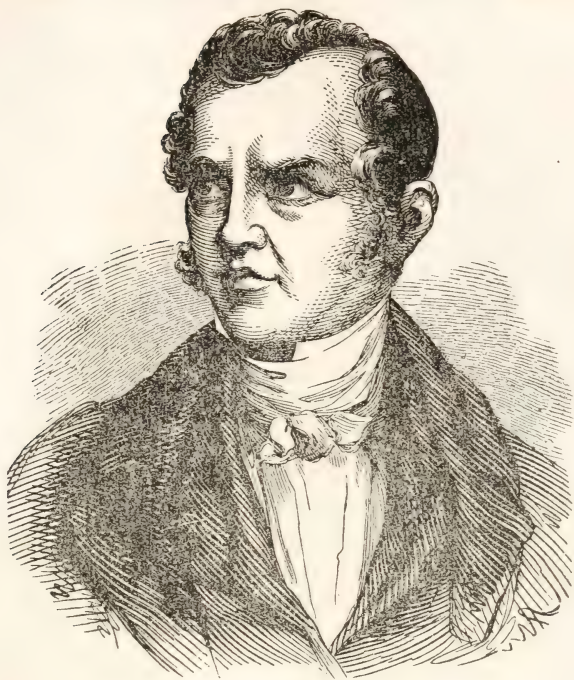
might be competent to read the original for himself, studied the Christian Scriptures with attention, and published, in English, Sanscrit, and Bengalee, a series of selections from the gospel, entitled "The Precepts of Jesus the Guide to Peace and Happiness." This having been animadverted upon by Dr. Marshman, of Serampore college, the learned Hindu published his "Second Appeal;" and on this being replied to by the doctor, a "Final Appeal" appeared. But neither this appeal, nor other publications of Rammohun Roy, on the same most important subject, have as yet had any great effect with the idolators and polytheists of Hindostan. If they are read in the spirit they ought to be, and in which they were written, there is reason to hope that some favorable impressions will be made on the minds of heathens and pagans everywhere. His object was moral and religious truth; but he was not content with studying the doctrines of the gospel in the creeds and systems in popular use. His personal and candid researches into the Scriptures convinced him, not only that the Christian religion was more rational and excellent than any other, but that it was of divine origin. He satisfied himself also that some of the popular tenets of the teachers of Christianity, especially those confessedly of a speculative or mysterious character, were not supported by the gospels: he likewise believed that the writings of both the Old and New Testaments clearly taught the doctrine of the Divine Unity, and that Jesus of Nazareth was his inspired messenger to mankind.

Having thus become a convert to Christianity, he wished to present it to his countrymen, for their examination and acceptance; and this he did in his various writings, before alluded to, but, as already remarked, with little immediate effect. During his stay at Calcutta, he connected himself with the periodical press, and was at different times the proprietor and conductor of newspapers printed in the native languages.

In April, 1831, the rajah, accompanied by his youngest son, arrived in England, where he was received with every mark of distinction and respect. In every kind of assemblage, religious, political, literary, and social, the amenity of his manners, his distinguished attainments, and his universal philanthropy, rendered him a welcome guest; and his advice was sought by the cabinet ministers on topics connected with the future government of India. He did not, however, live to carry into effect the various plans for improving the condition of his countrymen, whose welfare he had so much at heart—having been taken ill while on a visit at Bristol, where he expired in October, 1833, aged about fifty-seven years.

Rammohun Roy is a phenomenon in the pagan world in modern times. His independence, his impartiality, his love of moral truth, and his zealous inquiries to find it, together with the consideration of his personal sacrifices and dangers by his honesty of purpose, justly claim for him the praise and admiration of all lovers of moral and religious truth; and it is devoutly hoped that his example will not be lost upon mankind.

It is not strange that the ignorant and interested supporters of heathen worship endeavored to defend it by imputations on the character of this illustrious reformer. They charged him with "rashness, self-conceit, arrogance, and impiety." Even his mother bitterly condemned him. She was a woman of strong mind, but was wedded to the idolatry and polytheism of her country, and was also under the influence of the superstitious and selfish priests. A short time however, before her death, or separation from him, she said: "You are right but I am a weak woman, and am too old to give up these ancient observances, which are a comfort to me." This is the language and sentiment of nature and it accounts for the reluctance with which all persons (heathens or even Christians) give up their early faith and habits.



JOHN GASPAR SPURZHEIM.

JOHN GASPAR SPURZHEIM was born at the village of Longvick, near Treves, on the river Moselle, in Rhenish Prussia, December 31, 1776. His father cultivated a farm of the abbey St. Maximin de Treves, and was a man of considerable standing in society. The son acquired the rudiments of Latin and Greek in his native village, and obtained a thorough collegiate education at the university of Treves, seven miles distant, which he entered in 1791, in the fifteenth year of his age. Being intended by his parents for the clerical profession, he entered upon the study of divinity and philosophy, of both of which branches he became a profound master.

On leaving the university, Spurzheim repaired to Vienna, and was received into the family of Count Spangen, who intrusted to him the education of his sons. At that time, Dr. Gall was an eminent physician in Vienna, and had under his charge many of the hospitals and other public institutions requiring medical superintendence. His own house was open to all who desired information respecting his new discoveries. Spurzheim became deeply interested in Dr. Gall's discoveries, and commenced to attend his lectures in 1799. He had made considerable advancement in medical studies, and having become well acquainted with Gall's views on the anatomy and functions of the brain, he was associated with him as his assistant, and took special charge of the anatomical department; and in their public and private demonstrations, he always made the dissections, and Gall explained them to the students. Spurzheim was thus early schooled under one of the best anatomists and physiologists of that or any age, and afterward made many discoveries in the anatomy of the brain, as well as other important improvements, to which Dr. Gall was

greatly indebted for his success, nor was he too proud or too selfish to acknowledge it.

In 1802, the bigoted and tyrannical government of Austria showed itself unworthy the brilliant lights in its midst, by prohibiting their lectures. For three years they remained in Vienna, remonstrating against the edict; but finding their effort unavailing, and that there was no longer any hope of propagating the new discoveries in Austria, they determined to leave the empire.

In 1805, they left Vienna for Berlin, where they repeated their anatomical demonstrations, in the presence of the medical professors and numerous auditors. Learned men were so much interested in the new philosophy of the brain, that outlines of it were published by Professor Bischoff, Dr. Knoblauch, Mr. Blode, and Professors Reil and Loder, of Halle. Reil declared that he found more in the dissections of the brain, performed by Gall, than he had conceived it possible for a man to discover in his whole lifetime! Loder, also, in a letter to Professor Hufeland, says: "Now that Gall has been to Halle, and I have had an opportunity, not only of being present at his lectures, but of dissecting, along with him, nine human brains, and fourteen brains of animals, I consider myself qualified to give an opinion regarding his doctrines. The discourses of Gall, on the anatomy of the brain, are of the highest importance—these alone would be sufficient to render the name of Gall immortal; they are the most important that have been made in anatomy since the discovery of the system of the absorbent vessels. The unfolding of the brain is an excellent thing. What have we not to expect from it, as well as the ulterior discoveries to which it opens the way? I am ashamed and angry with myself for having, like the rest, during thirty years, sliced down hundreds of brains as we cut a cheese, and for having missed seeing the forest on account of the great number of trees which it contained. But it serves no purpose to distress one's self, or to be ashamed: the better way is to lend an ear to truth, and to learn what we do not know."

Such were the influences produced by their labors, on their way from the capital of tyrannical and bigoted Austria to Paris, where they arrived in the fall of 1807; and in the succeeding winter, Dr. Gall, assisted by Spurzheim delivered several courses of lectures and demonstrations, producing a profound impression on the minds of the Parisians. In May, 1808, they presented a joint memoir on the anatomy of the brain, containing an elaborate exposition of their discoveries, to the French Institute. This was referred by the institute to a committee of five, of which the celebrated Baron Cuvier was chairman. Although their report favored Gall and Spurzheim in some respects, it was unjust in others. The following year the two phrenologists published an extended and critical reply to this report, vindicating their claims to originality, the utility of their discoveries, and the truth of their demonstrations, with so much vigor and perspicuity, that no answer to it was ever attempted on the part of the institution.

After having labored with Dr. Gall in getting out two volumes of their great work on the "Anatomy and Physiology of the Nervous System in General, and of the Brain in Particular," Spurzheim, in 1813, separated from Dr. Gall, and they ever afterward prosecuted their labors separately. Spurzheim visited Vienna, and in March, 1814, he arrived in London, and soon delivered in that city his first course of lectures. About this time Dr. Spurzheim published his work on "Physiognomy, in connection with Phrenology," and also his "Observations on Insanity." The first of these works was most virulently assailed in the forty-ninth number of the Edinburgh Review, by Dr. John Gordon, who applied to the doctrine which it expounded the epithets of "trash," "despicable trumpery," "a collection of mere absurdities, without truth, connection, and consistency," and "a piece of thorough quackery, from beginning to end."

Spurzheim had intended to visit the Scottish Athens, but this article confirmed his resolution to do so, and probably hastened its execution. He procured but one letter of introduction for that city, and that one was to the author of the vituperating essay! He visited him, and obtained permission to dissect a brain in his presence; and, as Dr. Gordon himself was a lecturer on anatomy, the dissection took place in his lecture-room. The room was as full as it could be by reserving every alternate seat, that Dr. Spurzheim could carry around the brain to every spectator. Then, with the Edinburgh Review in one hand and a brain in the other, he manfully opposed fact and demonstration to assertion. Many saw, or thought they saw, fibres—there sat the writer of the article, still believing, or hugging his assertions in the Review, but the sharp-sighted and learned audience believed the anatomist; and that day won over nearly five hundred witnesses to the fibrous structure of the white substance of the brain, while it drew off a large portion of the admiring pupils from Dr. Gordon's lectures.

Thus aided by success on his entrance into Scotland, Dr. Spurzheim opened a course of lectures on the anatomy and functions of the brain, and its connection with the mind. He thus created a focal centre, from which phrenology has been disseminated throughout Britain. Men of the clearest philosophical minds, and many of profound and varied learning, listened to his teachings with unaffected admiration, and became thorough converts to his doctrines, among whom George Combe may be named.

Dr. Spurzheim remained three years, at this time, in Great Britain, and visited many of the large towns in Scotland, Ireland, and England, and delivered lectures in the cities of Bath, Bristol, Cork, Dublin, Liverpool, Edinburgh, and London. His doctrines aroused the conservatives to a state of feverish alarm at the bold innovation upon their time-honored dogmas, and called forth bitter and vituperative attacks, to which he replied with great force.

In 1817, Spurzheim returned to London and delivered a second course of lectures, and became a licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians in that city. In July, of the same year, he returned to Paris, and married a widow, Madame Perier; and so attached were her relatives to this amiable man, that they induced him to make that city his home. The press of France at this time was comparatively free, and the progress of truth was not openly opposed by the government. He delivered his lectures to very large and intelligent audiences, and was prosperous and happy. Mrs. Spurzheim had three daughters before her second marriage. Dr. Spurzheim never had any children of his own. His wife was a woman of tender attachment, true humility, and conscious power of mind, which excited at once respect, affection, and confidence. She entered fully into her husband's pursuits, and aided him by her uncommon skill in drawing. She was also an adept in phrenology, which, with her affectionate sympathy, made her one of the most desirable companions for him, and to her he was devotedly attached.

While residing in Paris, Dr. Spurzheim published several works in the French language—one on Insanity, one on Education, and one on Phrenology. The French government, in its consummate wisdom, had prohibited the delivery of all lectures without its special permission. Dr. Spurzheim determined to revisit England; and, as an additional inducement, a phrenological society had been formed in London, of which Dr. Elliotson, one of the most distinguished physicians of Great Britain was president. He arrived in London in March, 1825, and commenced two courses of lectures in different parts of the city. Public opinion had materially changed since his former visit, and several of the leading papers spoke very favorably of his labors.

In 1826, Dr. Spurzheim visited the university of Cambridge, where he was received with very marked respect, and honored with the most respectable au-

diences. In Bath and Bristol he also lectured with great success. In 1827, he delivered another course of lectures at the London Institution, which was attended by more than seven hundred auditors. He complied with an urgent request to visit Edinburgh, where he arrived in January, 1828, being received with great cordiality. He delivered two popular courses of lectures, and one course to a large class of the medical profession; and a dinner was given in his honor by the Edinburgh Phrenological Society.

The same year he lectured in Glasgow, and in Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, and other large towns in England. Near the close of the year he was sorely afflicted by the death of his wife. So great was the effect of this affliction on Dr. Spurzheim, that he ceased almost entirely his scientific labors for nearly two years. Having previously pledged himself to the Dublin Phrenological Society to visit that city and give another course of lectures, he proceeded thither in the spring of 1830, and was honored with a public dinner.

In the autumn of 1831, Dr. Spurzheim returned to Paris, where he lectured the ensuing winter. A great change had taken place during his absence. Dr. Gall was sleeping with the dead, but his doctrines had taken a new life. A phrenological society had been formed, consisting of more than one hundred members, sixty of whom were physicians.

It was the intention of Dr. Spurzheim to spend the residue of his life in Paris—to live and die with the relatives of his wife, who clung to him with ardent attachment; but this resolution was overruled by pressing invitations from Boston and other cities of the United States. Accordingly, on the 20th of June, 1832, he sailed from Havre, and arrived in New York, August 4. The cholera prevailing at that time in New York, he left on the 11th for New Haven, where he remained five days, attending the commencement exercises of Yale college, and dissecting a brain for the instruction of several medical men. On the 16th he proceeded to Hartford, visiting the deaf and dumb asylum, the insane retreat, and the stateprison at Wethersfield, where he examined the heads of Teller and the negro Cæsar (who were executed in 1833 for the murder of their keeper). Spurzheim at this time warned the warden against these convicts.

Dr. Spurzheim arrived in Boston on the 20th of August, and was received with great eagerness and cordiality by all classes. His first appearance in this country, before a public audience, was at a meeting of the American Institute, in the representatives' hall, where, by request, he delivered a lecture on education before an immense auditory. On the 17th of September, he commenced a course of eighteen lectures on phrenology at the Boston Athenæum, and soon after, another course at Harvard university in Cambridge. These lectures occupied six evenings in each week; besides which, he gave, on each alternate afternoon, a course of lectures before the medical faculty, and other professional gentlemen of Boston, on the anatomy of the brain. These lectures excited, in both Boston and Cambridge, the most profound interest.

The incessant labors of Dr. Spurzheim, however, were too great for his health, though he had a very strong and vigorous constitution. Change of climate, protracted exposure to the evening air, and over-exertion, brought on a general debility, and finally an attack of fever, which proved fatal on the 10th of November, 1832, when he calmly expired, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

Dr. Spurzheim's death was regarded as a public loss. He was honored with a funeral at the Old South church, where the Rev. Dr. Follen (also a German by birth, and afterward lost on board the ill-fated "Lexington") delivered an impressive oration, and the following eloquent ode, composed for the occasion by the Rev. John Pierpont, was sung:—

Stranger, there is bending o'er thee
Many an eye with sorrow wet;
All our stricken hearts deplore thee—
Who that knew thee can forget?

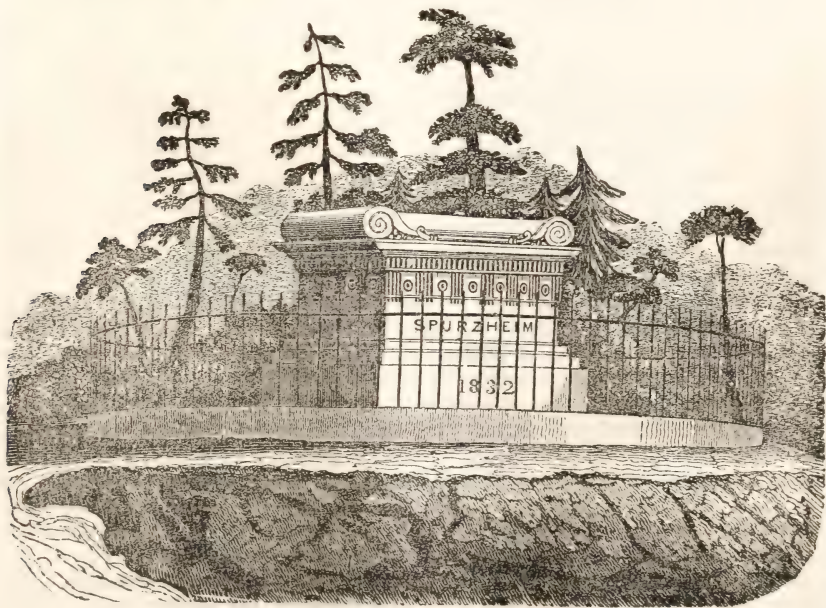
Who forget what thou hast spoken ?
 Who, thine eye—thy noble frame ?
 But, that golden bowl is broken,
 In the greatness of thy fame.

"Autumn's leaves shall fall and wither
 On the spot where thou dost rest :
 'T is in love we bear thee thither,
 To thy mourning mother's breast.
 For the stores of science brought us,
 For the charm thy goodness gave
 To the lessons thou hast taught us,
 Can we give thee but a grave ?

Nature's priest, how pure and fervent
 Was thy worship at her shrine ?
 Friend of man—of God the servant,
 Advocate of truths divine—
 Taught and charmed as by no other,
 We have been, and hoped to be
 But while waiting round thee, brother,
 For thy light—'t is dark with thee !

"Dark with thee ?—No ! thy Creator,
 All whose creatures and whose laws
 Thou didst love—shall give thee greater
 Light than earth's—as earth withdraws.
 To thy God, thy godlike spirit,
 Back we give in filial trust :
 Thy cold clay—we grieve to bear it
 To its chamber—BUT WE MUST."

An immense concourse was present, and it seemed as if all were mourners who followed his remains to their resting-place in the cemetery of Mount Auburn, a most beautiful enclosure, situated in Cambridge and Watertown, about four miles from Boston. A monument, a view of which is given below, has been erected over his grave, near the entrance to this interesting "city of the dead," by the munificence of William Sturges of Boston, bearing on it, as an inscription, a sufficient epitaph—simply, "SPURZHEIM."



Tomb of Spurzheim at Mount Auburn.



HENRY CLAY.

HENRY CLAY was born in Hanover county, Virginia, in a neighborhood commonly called the *Slashes*, April 12, 1777. His father, Rev. John Clay, a man of great vigor of character, and exemplary virtue and manners, died when Henry was only four years of age, leaving his widow, who was a woman endowed with eminent female virtues, in straitened circumstances, with seven children, of whom the subject of this memoir was next to the youngest. Mrs. Clay was married a second time to Capt. Henry Watkins, who worthily filled the place of a father to the children.

In 1791, when fourteen years of age, Henry Clay was taken into the store of Richard Donny, at Richmond, Virginia, his education at that time having extended no further than a graduation at the ordinary school of Mr. Peter Deacon. But his stepfather was not satisfied with this situation for the boy, and therefore placed him in the office of his friend, Peter Tinsley, Esq., then clerk of the court of chancery at Richmond. Here he attracted the attention of Chancellor Wythe, who being in want of a private secretary, a connection was formed which continued four years, Henry being nominally in the office of the clerk in chancery, but chiefly employed in the office of the chancellor. It was in this connection that Mr. Clay's mind received its high destination. It introduced him to a new sphere of thought and improvement. The chancellor became much attached to him, and, perceiving his uncommon capacities, gave him the use of his library, and superintended his studies for the legal profession.

In 1796, Mr. Clay left the office of Mr. Tinsley, and entered as a regular student of law, with the attorney-general of Virginia, Robert Brooks, Esq. The following year, he was admitted to practice by the court of appeals. He removed to Lexington, Kentucky, in November, 1797, to establish himself in the profession of the law, being then in his twenty-first year. His mother, with his stepfather, Capt. Watkins, and most of the family, had removed from Virginia to Woodford county, Kentucky, in 1792. By Capt. Watkins she had seven children, and died in a good old age, in 1829.

At Lexington, Mr. Clay commenced the practice of the law, under auspices not the most favorable. Many years afterward, alluding to his early career, he says he "was without patrons, without friends, and destitute of means. I remember how comfortable I thought I should be, if I could make one hundred pounds, Virginia money, per annum, and with what delight I received the first fifteen shillings fee. My hopes were more than realized: I immediately rushed into a lucrative practice." Perhaps at no previous period was the Lexington bar more distinguished for the talents and learning of its members, than at that time. Among them were Nicholas, Breckenridge, Murray, and others, who found in Mr. Clay a most formidable competitor, whose talents secured respect, and soon put him on a level with his older and more experienced rivals.

In April, 1799, Mr. Clay married Lucretia Hart, daughter of Col. Thomas Hart, of Lexington. By this lady, Mr. Clay had eleven children, five sons and six daughters. Of these, only two sons survive him. Henry Clay, jr., the third son, born in 1811, was killed at the battle of Buena Vista, Feb., 1847.

Mr. Clay first entered the field of politics during the administration of John Adams, when he took part at public meetings in discussing the alien and sedition laws, and other measures of the federal party, which were particularly unpopular in Kentucky. Mr. Clay soon became a decided favorite with the republican party, and was a warm advocate for the election of Mr. Jefferson, as well as subsequently one of the most zealous supporters of his administration. In 1803, the citizens of Fayette county, for the first time, brought him forward as a candidate for the legislature of Kentucky; and although late in the field, and at first nominated against his own wishes, he was triumphantly elected. In the legislature, he earned a reputation which caused him to be chosen by that body, in 1806, to the senate of the United States, to fill a vacancy, though he had scarcely arrived at the age required by the constitution. The election was for one session only, the term closing the 4th of March, 1807. During this short session, Mr. Clay distinguished himself by advocating several projects for internal improvement. In the summer of 1807, he was again elected to the state legislature, and, on taking his seat, made speaker of the house. After a service of two sessions in this capacity in that body, he was again (1809) chosen by the legislature to the United States senate, for the unexpired term of two years.

In 1811, the prospects of war with Great Britain, a question in which Mr. Clay took a deep interest, induced him to decline a re-election to the United States senate, and to stand as a candidate before the people for the house of representatives, preferring that field of action in Congress, at that peculiar crisis in the state of the country. Being triumphantly chosen by the people of his congressional district, he, for the first time, took his seat in the popular branch of Congress, on the assembling of that body, November 4, 1811, and was elected speaker of the house, on the first ballot, by a majority of thirty-one, out of one hundred and twenty-eight members present. This was considered a remarkable honor for a new member of a house, in which, at the time, there were many veteran members of the republican party, to which he belonged. This post he continued to occupy during the whole of the war with Great

Britain. No man was excited to more intense indignation by the outrages of England upon our commerce, and at the very outset of the session he embarked with his whole soul in favor of measures putting the country in an attitude of resistance to aggression. The war once begun, he continued to sustain it with all the faculties of his nature. The influence he wielded over the moral, and in that way over the physical power of the country, was immense. His animating spirit, his stirring eloquence, his useful counsels, and his untiring energy, were everywhere felt, and incited the army and navy to deeds of valor and victory, as they did the executive to vigor and constancy. So impressed was President Madison with the patriotism and extraordinary abilities of Mr. Clay, that, at the very commencement of the war, he selected him to be the commander-in-chief of the army, and was induced to withhold the nomination solely by the consideration of the immense worth of his services as a popular leader in Congress.

In January, 1814, Mr. Clay, having been designated as one of the commissioners to negotiate a peace, resigned the speakership, and repaired first to Göttingen, and afterward to Ghent. Upon this commission he exercised a great influence. The negotiations having been completed, Mr. Clay, leaving Ghent, spent a few months in France and England, and then embarked in September, 1815, for New York, where, on his arrival, he and Mr. Gallatin were complimented with a public dinner. The people of his congressional district had unanimously re-elected him to Congress while he was still in Europe, and at the ensuing session the house again called him to preside over its deliberations. During the session he ably defended the terms of the new treaty against the attacks of the federalists, and united with Calhoun and others in promoting the passage of many important laws, rendered necessary by the peace. Mr. Clay supported the charter of the United States bank in 1816, although he had, while a member of the United States senate, spoken and voted against the renewal of the charter of the first national bank, in 1811. From this period, it may be remarked that the series of measures and the system of policy advocated by Mr. Clay, in conducting the administration of the general government, did not differ materially from the policy which had distinguished Washington's administration, and been brought forward by Alexander Hamilton. After 1816, however, the federal party, as a national political distinction, soon ceased to exist; and the republicans, or democrats, under President Monroe, adopted those measures which they deemed best adapted to the circumstances of the country, without much regard to precedents or party designations.

In December, 1817, Mr. Clay was chosen speaker, by one hundred and forty out of one hundred and forty-seven votes given; and in December, 1819, he received one hundred and forty-seven out of one hundred and fifty-five votes, the whole number taken. During these successive sessions of Congress, among the most important measures advocated by Mr. Clay, were protection to domestic manufactures, a system of internal improvements, and the acknowledgment of the independence of the South American republics. He was the earliest advocate, in Congress, of the emancipation of South America, and his speech on this subject is one of the noblest efforts of his genius. Though the measure failed at the time, he had the pleasure of seeing it pass in 1822, with but one dissenting vote. In January, 1819, Mr. Clay made his great speech against General Jackson, for his conduct in the Seminole war, which caused a complete separation between him and the general, who was, even then, begun to be talked about for president, but to his elevation Mr. Clay always expressed a decided hostility.

In December, 1816, Mr. Clay presided at a meeting, at Washington city, to consider the propriety of colonizing the free people of color of the United States

in Africa. The meeting resulted in the formation of the colonization society, of which Judge Bushrod Washington was chosen president. Mr. Clay continued a leading member and officer of the society ever afterward, and was its president at the time of his death.

Mr. Clay's private affairs compelled him to forward his resignation as speaker to the clerk of the house, which he did at the opening of the second session of the sixteenth Congress, in November, 1820. His letter stated that he should not be able to attend until after the Christmas holidays. He took his seat as a member of the house on the 16th of January, 1821. From that date to the expiration of the term of that Congress, on the 4th of March ensuing (forty-seven days), was the only part of his career, as a member of the house, that he did not hold the office of speaker. During this short period, as a floor member, he performed a most important service to the country, in allaying the civil discord which agitated Congress and the nation, by effecting the Missouri compromise, which admitted that state into the Union, and settled the boundary of slavery west of the Mississippi. Mr. Clay's efforts on this occasion did more than all other human means to rescue the Union from the most fearful discord, and justly earned for him the proud title of "The Great Pacificator."

On the settlement of the Missouri question, Mr. Clay left Congress, to retrieve his private affairs, and resumed his professional labors. In the summer of 1823, he was again elected without opposition to the house of representatives, when on the first ballot, he was again elected speaker by a majority of four to one. During the session, he, as usual, took frequent occasion to mingle in the more important debates of the house.

In 1824, Mr. Clay was warmly put forward by many friends as a candidate for the presidency, and received thirty-seven votes in the electoral college. John Quincy Adams obtained eighty-four votes, Andrew Jackson ninety-nine, William H. Crawford forty-one. The election came before the house of representatives, and Mr. Clay, with his friends, had it in his power to turn the balance in favor of either of the three candidates. He decided in favor of Mr. Adams, who was thereby elected. Mr. Clay accepted the station of secretary of state, in which he remained during the entire administration, with what efficiency the archives of the state department will not cease to testify as long as the country endures. No policy could be more completely anti-European, and more thoroughly American, than that of Mr. Clay during his charge of our European affairs.

In 1829, Gen. Jackson assumed the presidential chair, and Mr. Clay retired to Kentucky to rest himself after the arduous toils of statesmanship. His journey thither resembled the triumphal progress of a conqueror, rather than the peaceful return of a citizen to his fireside. After two years' repose, the legislature of Kentucky elected him to the senate of the United States; and almost simultaneously, a national convention at Baltimore nominated him as a candidate for the presidency.

In January, 1832 (the tariff question being then under discussion), Mr. Clay introduced into the senate a resolution for a reduction of duties upon all foreign articles, silks and wines excepted, that did not interfere with domestic industry. He was opposed with much energy by Gen. Hayne, of South Carolina; and, in the course of the debate, Mr. Clay made his great speech on what has been termed the American or protective system. The resolution prevailed; a bill was framed accordingly, and passed into a law in July of that year. Such, however, was the dissatisfaction of South Carolina, and such the peril of the Union, that Mr. Clay, well knowing that the president was inimical to the protective scheme, determined to yield temporarily to the pressure; and therefore, in the following session, proposed, as a compromise, a

sliding-scale tariff, which was accepted joyfully by Congress, the executive, and the people. Being defeated by the re-election of General Jackson, Mr. Clay, remaining in the senate, continued to be the champion of his party throughout the stormy conflicts of the administration of Jackson and Van Buren, to which he opposed the entire force of his genius and talents.

In the summer of 1840, his name was again presented to the people in connection with the presidency, and his claims to the station were warmly urged upon the whig convention; but General Harrison, on the ground of superior availability, was finally selected as a candidate. At the extra session held in May, 1841, after the death of Harrison, and the succeeding session, several measures of the Whig party were matured by Congress under the leadership of Mr. Clay; but, by the unexpected refusal of President Tyler to co-operate in their passage, they were lost. In March, 1842, Mr. Clay resigned his seat in the senate, and took what he supposed to be his final leave of that body, in a valedictory address of incomparable beauty and pathos. He immediately returned to Kentucky, where he frequently communicated with the public by letters and public speeches on all the exciting topics of the day. Public opinion had universally designated him as the next whig candidate for the presidency, and at the meeting of the whig convention at Baltimore in May, 1844, he was nominated by acclamation. One of the most hotly-contested campaigns on record succeeded, which resulted in the election of James K. Polk, the democratic candidate.

In 1848, Mr. Clay was again induced, by the partiality of his friends, to allow his name to be presented to the whig national convention; but General Taylor became the chosen candidate. In December, he was unanimously elected senator, and again took his seat in the senate at the session commencing in 1849. Texas had been annexed to the United States; the war growing out of this event had terminated by the addition of a large territory to the country; and, at this time, the question of prohibiting slavery in the organization of the new territory was so violently agitated as to threaten the dissolution of the Union. Mr. Clay, on two previous occasions, had nobly performed the part of a peace-maker, when internal discord was rife, and all eyes were now turned to him as the one who could quell the rising storm. Accordingly, in January, 1850, he submitted a plan for amicably adjusting all existing questions of controversy upon a fair and equitable basis; and, although his plan was not altogether adopted, it resulted in the passage of the compromise measures in September. Mr. Clay had labored so assiduously that his health was impaired; and, at the short session which followed, he made his last great effort in the senate in behalf of the river and harbor improvement bill.

At the opening of the session of 1851, Mr. Clay returned to Washington; but his health was so enfeebled that he could not enter upon his duties in the senate. He continued to decline until the 29th of June, 1852, when, in the full possession of an unclouded intellect and all the consolations of a Christian faith, he expired, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. His death called out the deepest tokens of regard from all classes, and the memory of the illustrious statesman was honored by public obsequies in all parts of the country.

Mr. Clay is justly renowned for the indomitable energy, irresistible eloquence, diplomatic ability, and accomplished statesmanship, he displayed in the councils of the nation for half a century. His noble and disinterested love of country, which enabled him to say, "I had rather be right than be president," and his patriotism, which "knew no south, no north, no east, no west," have emphatically stamped his name among the great men of any time. Generous without ostentation, republican in his manners, winning the respect and esteem of the virtuous and good, he has left behind him a character that future generations will honor and revere.



WASHINGTON ALLSTON.

THIS illustrious person, though chiefly distinguished as an artist, entitled himself to an enviable and enduring reputation by various works in literature, which, particularly those executed in his mature years, have much of the character and excellence of his pictures.

WASHINGTON ALLSTON was born in Georgetown, South Carolina, November 5, 1779. His family is respectable, and several members of it have been distinguished in the public service. When he was seven years old, he was removed to Newport, Rhode Island, where he continued at school until 1796, when he was transferred to Harvard college. At Newport he became acquainted with Malbone, whose beautiful miniatures were then beginning to attract attention, and was smitten with the love of art, so that meeting him again in Boston, during his freshman year in college, he determined to adopt his profession. Under the casual direction of Malbone he devoted as much time to painting as he could borrow from his other pursuits, until he graduated, when he sold his paternal estate for the purpose of studying in Europe, and sailed for London. West was then president of the Royal Academy, and he received his young countryman very kindly. "I shall not," he writes, "forget his benevolent smile when he took me by the hand. . . . He was a man overflowing with the milk of human kindness." In a few months he became an exhibitor, and sold one of his pictures. In 1804, he went to Paris, and studied in the Louvre and Luxembourg; and proceeded to Italy, where he remained

four years with Coleridge and Washington Irving for companions, and Thorwaldsen* for a fellow-student.

As a proof of the estimation in which Allston was held in Rome, Professor Wier, of West Point, who was studying in that city many years after Allston left, says that the artists of Rome inquired of him about an American painter, for whom they had no name but "the American Titian." When Wier mentioned Allston's name, they exclaimed, "That's the man!" Celebrated European artists have been heard to say that they believed no painter's coloring, for two hundred years, has so closely resembled Titian's.

In 1809, Allston returned to Boston, where he remained nearly three years, marrying in this period a sister of Dr. Channing; and in 1811 he went again to England. One of his first works after his arrival was the great picture of "The Dead Man revived by Elijah's Bones," which obtained a prize of two hundred guineas from the British Institution, and is now in the Pennsylvania Academy, having been purchased for three thousand five hundred dollars—hardly a tithe of its real value. While it was in progress he was seized with a dangerous illness, and retired from London to Clifton, a rural town, where on his recovery he painted portraits of Coleridge, Southey, and some others. When he went back to the city, his wife died, suddenly, and "left me," he says in one of his letters, "nothing but my art; and this seemed to me as nothing." His intellect was for a while deranged, but the assiduities of friends, and his own will, triumphed; and when his mind had recovered its tone, he painted "The Mother and Child," now in the collection of Mr. McMurtrie, of Philadelphia; "Jacob's Dream," which is owned by the earl of Egremont; "Uriel in the Sun," which was purchased by the marquis of Stafford; and some other pictures.

In 1818, Mr. Allston came back a second time to Boston, and he resided all the rest of his life near that city. He was married to a sister of Richard H. Dana, a man of kindred genius, and had many warm friends, some of whom could have left him nothing to desire of sympathy or appreciation. Among the pictures which he painted are "Rosalie Listening to Music," "Ursulina," and "The Spanish Maid," which he illustrated with beautiful and exquisitely finished poems; and "Miriam Singing her Song of Triumph," "Jeremiah Dictating to the Scribe his Prophecy of the Destruction of Jerusalem," "Saul and the Witch of Endor," "The Angel Liberating Peter from Prison," and "Lorenzo and Jessica." In 1814, he had commenced a large picture "Belshazzar's Feast," which it was thought would be his masterpiece; but though he continued to work upon it at times for nearly thirty years, it was never finished.

Mr. Allston lived in retirement at Cambridgeport, occasionally going into Boston, but not often. His health was feeble for many years, but he was never idle. Dunlap having asserted, in his "History of the Arts of Design," that

* ALBERT THORWALDSEN, the great Danish sculptor, was the son of a carver on wood; but though the circumstances of the parent were narrow, the boy, having early shown great talent for drawing, was gratuitously and well educated at the Copenhagen Academy of Arts. Here he studied so effectually that he obtained two gold medals and a travelling studentship, which entitles the fortunate competitor to a salary for three years. Thus far fortunate, Thorwaldsen proceeded to Rome, where he worked with zeal and energy, but where he is said to have been for some time so overwhelmed by the magnificence of ancient art, by which he saw himself surrounded, as to have broken up not a few of his earlier works as soon as they were completed. Though modesty and a difficulty of giving self-satisfaction are proverbially characteristic of great and true genius, yet modesty may be carried to a fatal excess; and such was very nearly the case in the present instance. The now-exulting, now-despairing young sculptor was preparing to return home, his three years' allowance being completely exhausted, when most happily the clay model of his Jason was seen by the late Henry Philip Hope, of England, a princely patron of art, who ordered the marble statue of him at a price which utterly set aside all his thoughts of returning home. The Jason once completed, and by Mr. Hope's means made known, Thorwaldsen's fortune was virtually made: orders at vast prices poured in upon him from all parts; and the splendid works completed by him from the commencement of 1800 to the close of 1837, place him in the first rank of modern sculptors. His countrymen were justly proud of him, and honored him with a public funeral at Copenhagen. Thorwaldsen died on the 24th of March, 1844, in the seventy-fourth year of his age.

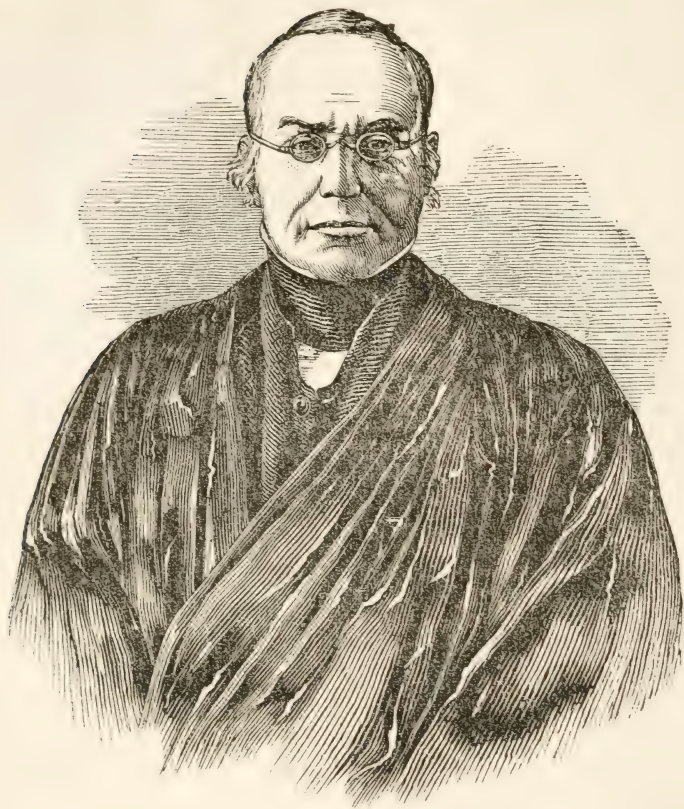
Allston was indolent, the latter remarked to a friend: "I am famous among my acquaintances for industry; I paint every day, and never pass an hour without accomplishing something." At sixty he had as many pictures in contemplation as the most ambitious artist of thirty. An ordinary lifetime would not have sufficed to finish those he had sketched upon canvass. He read much, and delighted all who saw him with his eloquent conversation. His manners were gentle and dignified. His dress was simple and old-fashioned: a blue coat with plain, bright buttons, a buff vest, and drab pantaloons. His face was thin and serious, with remarkably expressive eyes; his hair, fine, long, and silvery white, fell gracefully upon his shoulders; and his voice was soft, earnest, and musical.

The evening of June 9, 1843, Mr. Allston passed cheerfully with his friends. At about eleven o'clock he laid his hands upon the head of a young relative, begged her to live as near perfection as she could, and blessed her fervently. He then retired into his painting-room, where he was found soon after, seated before one of his pictures, dead. This event occurred in the sixty-fourth year of his age. He was buried by torchlight, in the beautiful cemetery of Mount Auburn, in the presence of a large concourse who had gathered to pay their last tribute to the great genius whose works had added so much to the national glory.

Of Allston's genius as a painter, his remarks on Monaldi may perhaps be applied with equal truth to himself—that "he differed from his contemporaries no less in kind than degree. If he held anything in common with others, it was with those of ages past, with the mighty dead of the fifteenth century, from whom he had learned the language of his art; but his thoughts and their turn of expression were his own." It may be said with confidence that it is the judgment of the best critics of this age that he left no equal, in his department of art, in the world.

While in London, in 1813, Mr. Allston published a small volume entitled "The Sylphs of the Seasons, and other Poems;" and when Mr. Dana projected "The Idle Man," in 1820, he wrote for that work his romance of "Monaldi." But "The Idle Man," for some reason, was discontinued, and Allston's manuscript was laid aside for more than twenty years. It was finally published, in a single volume, in 1841.

The fame of Allston's writings has been so eclipsed by that of his paintings, that they were comparatively unknown until the publication of his life by his brother-in-law Dana. His prose writings indicate a remarkable command of language, great descriptive powers, and rare philosophical as well as imaginative talent. "Monaldi" is his principal and indeed only acknowledged performance of any length. It is a tale of Italian life, written with the vigor and method of a practised romancist. The mind of the true artist appears in several discussions, which are very naturally introduced, on the merits of the old masters; and it is no less evident in the character of the hero, who is a painter, as well as in many graphic descriptions of scenery. Some of the lights and shades of the landscape are given as they could have been only by one familiar with the practice of art. The style of "Monaldi" is remarkably concise and unaffected, frequently rising into eloquence, and never becoming tame. Its particular merits as a story consist in the masterly analysis of human passion, the lovely unfolding of female character, and the dramatic management of events. There is great metaphysical truth in the development of love and jealousy, which is its chief purpose. Indeed, if Allston had never painted prophets, these written pictures would have established his fame as an author. The work shows how capable he was of achieving a wide and permanent literary reputation, and forms a most interesting and valuable addition to our romantic fiction. His other prose writings are chiefly on subjects connected with the arts, and are finished with the same care as his paintings,



JOSEPH STORY.

This distinguished jurist was born in Marblehead, Massachusetts, September 18, 1779. His father was Elisha Story, a physician, who was a surgeon in the army of the Revolution. At the age of sixteen, the subject of this sketch entered Harvard college, in the class with William Ellery Channing.* After

* WILLIAM ELLERY CHANNING, the eminent scholar and distinguished unitarian divine, was born at Newport, in Rhode Island, April 7, 1780. His great-grandfather, John Channing, the first of the name who came to America, was a native of Dorsetshire, in England; his grandfather, John Channing, was a merchant in Newport; and his father, William Channing, after graduating at Princeton college, in 1767, became a lawyer, and was for many years attorney-general of Rhode Island. His mother, to whose piety, gentleness, and faithfulness, he bore affectionate and grateful testimony, was a daughter of William Ellery, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and afterward a member of Congress, and chief justice of his state. Through her he was descended from Anne Bradstreet, the wife of Governor Bradstreet, of Massachusetts, and daughter of Governor Dudley, who two hundred years ago was styled, by one of the most learned and distinguished of the puritans, "the mirror of her age, and glory of her sex." Channing entered Harvard college when but fourteen years of age. He had been through the customary range of study in the Latin and Greek authors before he went to Cambridge, and for a year or two he continued to exhibit a predilection for classical studies, but before the end of his term he became comparatively indifferent to them, and devoted his chief attention to moral philosophy, history, and general literature. His views of life were serious, his plans determined, and his studies were already made to bend in some degree to his prospective pursuits. Yet the highest honors of his class were awarded to him when he graduated, in 1798. Soon after leaving Cambridge, Channing became a private tutor in a family of Virginia, and went to reside in that state. His health hitherto had been remarkably good, but now it failed, and he was to the end of his life an invalid. After his return to Newport he pursued, without any professor or teacher to guide him, his studies in theology. Soon after he began to preach, he received and accepted an invitation to become the pastor

graduating, he commenced the study of the law in the office of Chief-Justice Sewall, in his native town, which he afterward pursued with Justice Putnam, of Salem, where he was admitted to the bar, and began the practice of his profession in 1801.

In his twenty-fifth year, Mr. Story was chosen a member of the lower branch of the state legislature, to which he was several times re-elected, and in which he was twice made speaker. In 1809, he was elected a member of Congress, to fill a vacancy occasioned by the death of Mr. Crowninshield, but declined a further service than for the remainder of the term, deeming the excitement of political life incompatible with that devotion to his profession which was necessary to the highest success.

The place made vacant on the bench of the supreme court of the United States by the death of Judge Cushing, in 1811, was tendered by President Madison to Mr. John Quincy Adams, at that time in Russia, and being declined by him, was conferred upon Mr. Story, who was then but thirty-two years of age. So young a man had never before, in England or America, been elevated to so high a judicial position, and much dissatisfaction was occasioned by this appointment; but every regret and apprehension was soon dissipated by the displays of his extensive and accurate professional learning, excellent judgment, perfect candor, and decided business habits. He remained on the bench until the close of his life, and held no other civil office, except in 1820, when he sat with John Adams, Josiah Quincy, Daniel Webster, and other leading men of Massachusetts, in the convention which revised the constitution of that state.

In 1829, Mr. Nathan Dane, one of the wisest and purest men who have

of the church in Federal street in Boston, and was ordained June 1, 1803. The congregation worshipping there was then small, but on this account the situation was preferred to another which was offered to him, for the slenderness and debility of his frame would not allow him to labor much as a parochial minister. His countenance was beautiful, his voice, always tremulous, was variably musical, and his articulation slow and distinct. His manner altogether was natural, persuasive, and earnest. He immediately became popular, and the increase of his society soon rendered necessary the erection of a new and larger place of worship. A visit to Europe much improved his health, and filled his mind and heart with new purposes. He retained his connection with the society until his death, though in 1824 a colleague (the Rev. Dr. Gannett) was associated with him, and in 1840 he was relieved from the obligation of performing any public duties—Dr. Channing's earliest publications were on controversial theology. His sermon on the "The Unitarian Belief," preached at the ordination of the Rev. Jared Sparks, in Baltimore, in 1819, is perhaps the most ingenious and polished of his dogmatical essays. It excited an extraordinary degree of attention, and several of the ablest trinitarian writers in the country replied to it. In 1820, he printed in "The Christian Disciple" a paper on the same subject, entitled "The Moral Argument against Calvinism." But though he continued to feel a deep interest in this and other religious controversies, they could not have been congenial to one who was so sensitively alive to the beautiful. He was brought more directly into notice as a literary man by his essay on "National Literature," published in 1823, and his "Remarks on the Character and Writings of John Milton," which appeared in the "Christian Examiner" for 1826. His "Remarks on the Life and Character of Napoleon Bonaparte," which appeared shortly after, is a more able article than that on Milton, but its merits are in its generalities; it has very little as a delineation of the character of that great man, whose name, given to the winds at Toulon, became an undying sound. In short, it was written in the spirit of English Toryism, and as such was republished in every conceivable form by the British press, as the best defence that could be made before the world in behalf of England for her treatment of Napoleon. In 1829, Dr. Channing published in the "Christian Examiner" his "Remarks on the Character and Writings of Fenelon"—a paper in which are developed with much ability some of his ethical views, particularly in reference to the dignity of human nature. There is a perceptible and steady increase of strength and beauty in Dr. Channing's writings, and they are more profound, original, and characteristic, the more he gave himself up to his true mission, which was, not so much to dispute about systems of faith, as to bring acts, customs, and institutions, to the standard of Christian morality, and in the spirit of a genuine philanthropy to advocate the cause of peace, gentleness, and righteousness. Of peace he was an early and persevering friend: in 1816, he published his first discourse on the subject; when there was danger of a rupture with France, in 1835, he again raised his voice in remonstrance; and also in 1839, when there was a prospect of a conflict with Great Britain. His discourses display great genius; they are beautiful specimens of pulpit eloquence—chaste, earnest, pure, and sublime. He took an earnest part in all the great religious and moral movements of the day, and by the fervor of his convictions, the chasteness and persuasiveness of his style, and fearless utterance of what he thought, wielded a potent influence over the whole future mind of his country. The theory of beauty which Edwards taught, Channing understood and appreciated, and the pure and ardent benevolence which it inculcated he practised. To him more than to any one else the people of New England are indebted for the liberality and tolerance of religious controversy.—He passed the last few years of his life in much privacy, at Boston in winter and at Newport in summer. While travelling, he was seized with typhus fever, and died at Bennington, Vermont, October 2, 1842, aged sixty-two.

lived in this nation, founded a professorship of law in Harvard college; and by a condition of the endowment Judge Story became the first occupant of the chair. He had already made acceptable presents to the profession in his "Selection of Pleadings," and in his editions of "Chitty on Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes," and "Lord Tenterden on the Law of Shipping," to both of which he added many valuable notes. The delivery of courses of lectures, in Dane hall, upon the law of nature, the laws of nations, maritime and commercial law, equity law, and the constitutional law of the United States, led to the preparation of that series of great works upon which his reputation chiefly rests, and which have made his name familiar in all the high parliaments, judicatures, and universities, of the world. The first of these was "Commentaries on the Law of Bailments," which appeared in 1832. This was followed in 1833 by "Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States," prefaced by a constitutional history of the colonies, and of the states under the confederation. This work, which is of great interest to the student in history as well as to the lawyer, he subsequently abridged, that it might be used as a class-book in the schools. In 1834 appeared in three volumes his "Commentaries on the Conflict of Laws," in which the opposing laws of different nations are treated with especial reference to marriages, divorces, wills, successions, and judgments. It is regarded as the most original and profound of his works, and was the first upon the subject in the English language. In 1836 were published his "Commentaries on Equity Jurisprudence," in two volumes, and in 1838 his "Commentaries on Equity Pleadings," works which were equal to his reputation, and which were received by the profession with unhesitating approval.

The industry of Judge Story was very great. His memory was so retentive, that a single and hasty reading was quite sufficient to make him familiar with almost any author. Yet when we remember the extent of the literature of his profession, which is probably twice as great as when Marshall came to the bench, we are struck with the amount of labor necessary to form the most general acquaintance with it. Add to this the number of his works, which are more voluminous than those of any other lawyer of great eminence (forming as they do an important part of thirty-four volumes), and it is difficult to understand how he had any leisure for the pursuit of literature or the enjoyment of society. But he was a man of taste, of warm affections, with a wide circle of friends, and of a deep and abiding interest in all the great movements of the people.

During his student-life, and soon after he entered upon the practice of the law in Salem, Mr. Story was an occasional writer of verses, and in 1802 he published a didactic poem entitled "The Power of Solitude," which was reprinted with several miscellaneous pieces in a duodecimo volume of two hundred and fifty pages in 1804. They have very little merit, of any kind, but their composition may have enabled him to acquire something of that copiousness and harmony for which his prose diction is distinguished.

His principal literary writings are contained in a collection of his discourses, reviews, and miscellanies, published in 1835. In this volume are twenty-nine papers, among which are sketches of Samuel Dexter, William Pinckney, Thomas Addis Emmet, John Hooker Ashman, and Justices Marshall, Trimble, Washington, and Parker; addresses before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Harvard college, and the Essex Historical Society; his contributions to the North American Review; and various juridical arguments, and political reports, &c.

Judge Story's career was undoubtedly the one in which he was fitted to shine most brightly. With vast learning, strong sense, reasoning powers of a high order, and generally correct taste, he would have been eminently respectable in any field of intellectual exertion.

He died, after a short illness, at Cambridge, near Boston, September 10, 1845, having nearly completed the sixty-sixth year of his age.



THOMAS MOORE.

THOMAS MOORE was born in Dublin, Ireland, May 28, 1779. He was the only son of Mr. Garret Moore, a respectable tradesman of that city. His early education was superintended by a Mr. Whyte, who had also been Sheridan's preceptor. At the age of fourteen he was entered as a student of Trinity college, and here, we are told, made himself as remarkable for the eloquence wherewith he supported his well-known peculiar opinions, as for his classical attainments.

At the close of the year 1799, Mr. Moore entered himself as a member of the Inner Temple, in London, and in the year following gained the surname which will, perhaps, be graven on his tomb, by the publication of his translation of Anacreon's Odes; this was dedicated to George IV., then prince of Wales. In 1801, he published a volume of love-poems, under the assumed name of Little. Mr. Moore's next essays were political, being two poems, "Corruption and Intolerance," in which he shows himself as warm a patriot as he had before shown himself a warm votary of pleasure. "A Candid Appeal to Public Confidence," another work devoted to the topics of the hour, bears the date of 1803; and it may have been about this time, or yet earlier, if we are to judge from two pleasant lines by Croker, that he essayed dramatic composition, the piece being "The Gipsy Prince," which met with only a partial success.

In the autumn of 1803, Mr. Moore was appointed registrar to the British admiralty at Bermuda, and proceeded thither; but after a short residence, finding the place and the drudgery of office intolerable to him, he decided on fulfilling its duties by deputy; and, paying a flying visit to the United States and

Canada on his way homeward, returned to England late in the year 1804. In 1806, he published his "Odes and Epistles," suggested by this ramble—a series of travelling sketches and personal poems, in which he expressed very strongly the unfavorable views of American character formed during his travels. The volume was reviewed by Jeffrey, in the "Edinburgh," with so much severity, that the poet challenged the critic. A hostile meeting took place, but the duel was prevented by the intervention of the police. On the pistols being examined, it was found that the seconds or some other provident persons had substituted paper pellets for balls: this gave occasion to much laughter and many epigrams; but as both parties were men of undoubted courage, their character remained unimpeached. The repetition of the story of this bloodless duel, in "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers," first led to a quarrel, and thence to an enduring friendship, between Byron and Moore.

In the year 1807, Mr. Moore presented himself to the public as the author of the "Irish Melodies." By these his name will be known, so long as there are voices to sing and hearts to feel. Few have ever applied themselves to any task so richly qualified as he was. He possessed not merely the mechanical power over language and rhythm, the musical ear, and, it may be added, the musical knowledge so eminently requisite for a song-writer, but he entered thoroughly into the spirit of the national music which he had undertaken to "marry with rhyme," and could, with enviable versatility,

"Call up the sunshine, or bring down the showers,"

by a strain careless or melancholy as the air under his hands (and in his heart) demanded. Among the other verses for music which Mr. Moore has poured forth, with a fertility unexampled, we may enumerate the "National Melodies," the "Sacred Melodies," the "Evenings in Greece," and "The Summer Fête," where the songs are strung together on a connecting thread of verse, slight indeed, but always golden: to say nothing of other later collections, and a countless variety of single songs, and duets, and glees. In many of these, Mr. Moore, besides being their poet, appears as musical composer also, with happy effect. Vain is it now to enter upon a criticism of these all-cherished "Melodies"—or to contend that Shakspeare, when he fashioned love-songs, spoke with truer, deeper pathos; or that Burns, when upon the same theme, in greater strain, called around him the night with its raven plumage to shade the intensity of those transports which made him write with angel-pen. Moore had none of this force, nor would it have suited his purpose; but it may be truly said that throughout the realm of English song, there seldom passes a social evening or a convivial meeting, where music does not bring with it his melodies.

In the year 1811, Mr. Moore made his second dramatic essay in an opera, "M. P., or the Blue-Stocking." This was produced at the London Lyceum, then under Mr. Arnold's management, with but questionable success. During the six subsequent years he was principally occupied with the publication of songs and political *jeux d'esprit*, the doings of the regent and his household furnishing him abundant matter for his wit. Many of his sharpest-pointed sallies (they are all as fine as poignant) appeared in the "Times" newspaper, with which he was understood to have formed a regular connection. "The Twopenny Post-bag" was published in 1813, and set all the world, even the victims, laughing. "The piquancy of Moore's political satire," remarks a contemporary, "is admirable. His hits are home; while, from the flow of the nicely-balanced verse, every stanza reads as if the whole structure of the language had been expressly arranged for the convenience of the poet."

During these years, likewise, the poet entered extensively into the fashionable and brilliant society of the metropolis, of which such lively glimpses are to be found in the correspondence of his friend and contemporary, Lord

Byron. The poet of "Childe Harold," and of the "Melodies," assumed the matrimonial yoke about the same period, but with far different results of happiness: the latter married a Miss Dyke (who survives her husband), a lady of beauty, amiability, and much firmness and decision of character.

In 1817, Mr. Moore's popularity seemed to be at its height. The eminent London publishers, Messrs. Longman, about this period, agreed to give fifteen thousand dollars for an Eastern poem. Moore retired to the banks of the Dove, imbued himself with oriental reading, and in three years produced "Lalla Rookh." The enormous sum given for it was an earnest that that oriental tale of tales was to be spread abroad yet more widely, to be read and got by heart with even a warmer enthusiasm than its author's shorter metrical essays; and the event justified the anticipations of its publishers. The success of "Lalla Rookh" was splendid; the stories it contains excited a strong interest, the music of the verse in which they were poured out was of a seducing and luxurious harmony, and all the gorgeous and picturesque shows of the East, among which the fancy has loved to revel ever since the days when the "Thousand and One Nights" was a favorite cradle-book, were scattered through the poet's pages with a rich and graceful profusion. This wonderful romance "struck a new key, and poured upon the world a dazzling flood of gorgeous eastern illustration and imagery. Old orientalists could not understand how such a poem could have been written by a man who had never ridden on an elephant, or reclined beneath a palm-tree; while the extraordinary mingling of glittering pageantry with a lulling, luscious warmth of idea, took by storm the dazzled brains of the British public."

Moore's next work, "The Fudge Family," one of those brilliant trifles in right of which he stands unrivalled, owed its birth to a passing visit to Paris, whose humors, and the humors of its visitors, the sight-seeing English, were as yet comparatively unexhausted. More recently Mr. Moore, in his "Fudge Family in England," reproduced the actors who figured in that piquant satire.

After the literary triumph of "Lalla Rookh," Mr. Moore went twice abroad; the first time with the poet Rogers, the second with Lord John Russell, when he proceeded to Genoa, and at Venice visited Lord Byron, with whom his friendship continued unimpaired till death divided them. Returning from Rome in 1821, Mr. Moore was compelled, by the defalcations of his deputy in Bermuda, to leave England. He resided for about fourteen months in Paris, until he wrote his second and last long poem, "The Loves of the Angels," which was published in 1823, and realized a sum sufficient to discharge the claims of his creditors. In the same year appeared his "Fables for the Holy Alliance," published under the name of Thomas Browne.

Soon after his going back to England, Moore settled in graceful retirement at a cottage called Sloperton, in Somersetshire, in the immediate vicinity of the beautiful demesne of Bowood, the seat of his ever-constant friend the marquis of Lansdowne. Here he passed the greater portion of the rest of his life, in the midst of his friends, the charm and delight of them all. Lord Lansdowne will be for ever associated with the fame of Moore, as are Glencairn with that of Burns, and Southampton with that of Shakspeare. Bowood, with its splendid library, its lovely walks, and its princely hospitalities, was at all times open to the poet, and here he spent the happiest hours of his declining years.

In 1825, Moore appeared as a prose-writer. The "Life of Sheridan" was his first biography. That of Byron, infinitely superior to the other, came out in 1830; and the following year he published the "Memoirs of Lord Edward Fitzgerald." Besides these biographical efforts, Moore entered the field of political and religious controversy, in the "Memoirs of Captain Rock," and "The Travels of an Irish Gentleman." He also contributed a "History of Ireland" to Dr. Lardner's "Cyclopædia." None of these works, in right of

their execution, can rank as high as the author's poems. In 1827, he produced "The Epicurean," a prose story, intended to have been verse, in many respects the most elevated work of his pen. Love here becomes more spiritualized than she had been with him before; and the whole tone and tenor of the romance are of an inspiring and ennobling character.

In later days, Moore occasionally contributed squibs, with much of the old sparkle, on passing events of the day, principally to the columns of the London "Morning Chronicle." It is also known that he had made considerable progress in a diary of his life, when unhappily he had to experience the lot that had before befallen another genius of Ireland, Dean Swift: darkness came down upon that brain so long and so brightly lit by the fires of wit and fancy. Of late years the poet's existence was but physical, so that his departure brought the less of sorrow with it. He died at his residence, on the 26th of February, 1852, in the seventy-third year of his age. None of the four children of the poet survive him. One son for some time was a pupil with a French translator of his father's verse—M. Bertrand, a professor of high literary fame at, and subsequently mayor of, Caen, in Normandy. Another son of Moore's died in the French military service at Algiers.

Foremost in the brilliant group of poets who ushered in the present century, and perfectly original and unapproachable in his own particular line, Moore's talents shone out vivid and lustrous, even in the luminous atmosphere in which they were exhibited. In certain departments of mental exertion, in vivacious and scintillating fancy, ever calling up in endless array new and sparkling imagery, and new and highly-colored illustration—in elegance and tenderness of thought—frequently attaining, not to the deepest, but the gentlest and the most winning degree of pathos; and in the wonderful power which he possessed of musical diction, of handling our stern and rugged language so as to make melody of the very words—in all these respects Moore has no rival near the throne. What Moore wants is just what prevents his being one of the very greatest poets: he has not serene and high-soaring imagination or severe and massive contemplation. He is the poet of the senses rather than of the mind. Reveling in every gay and glittering sight, and sweet and musical sound, he meddles not with the deep secrets of the heart, or the heroic struggles of strong and noble minds. Yet, if Moore is not an orb of Shaksperian or Byronic lustre, he shines brightly near. He is, indeed, to Shakspeare what Anacreon was to Homer.

In politics, Moore was, throughout life, a stanch and consistent liberal. His birth, his creed, his nearest and dearest associations, led him into close and cordial alliance with those whose policy, aloof from extremes, suited both his gentle disposition and his violent love of freedom. Under these circumstances, the pension (of fifteen hundred dollars yearly) conferred upon him by a whig administration of the British government was the natural mark of regard and consideration for him. Moore felt as he spoke of the wrongs of Erin, and he playfully satirized the foibles of the opponents of his own opinions: still, his very political bias was upright and gentlemanly; he cherished neither harm nor hate; the kindness of his soul was in all he said or did, and he truly and warmly cherished those themes which he doated on—the amenities of social life, the ardor of patriotism, and the softness of woman's love. The lines which he himself paraphrased for the tomb of that ancient poet whom he resembled as closely as the better Christian can the baser pagan, might well appear to his own memory:—

O stranger, if Anacreon's shell
Has ever taught thy heart to swell
With passion's throb or pleasure's sigh,
In pity turn, as wandering nigh,
And drop thy goblet's richest tear
In exquisite libation here!"



THOMAS CHALMERS.

THOMAS CHALMERS, D. D., was born at Anstruther, in Fifeshire, Scotland, March 17, 1780, and was early sent to study at St. Andrew's university, in his native county. His college career was distinguished by some of his subsequent peculiarities—energy, good humor, companionableness, and ascendancy over others; and it was then that his passion for the physical sciences was first developed. Besides theology, he studied mathematics, chemistry, and some branches of natural history, with more than youthful enthusiasm, and with such success, that, besides assisting his own professor, he made a narrow escape from the mathematical chair in Edinburgh.

On the completion of his theological studies, Mr. Chalmers officiated for about two years as assistant in the parish of Cavers, and in 1803 he obtained a presentation to the parish of Kilmany, in Fifeshire. Here he remained for some years, in the quiet discharge of his clerical duties, when he was suddenly awakened to a knowledge of vital Christianity, while engaged in writing the article "Christianity" for Brewster's "Edinburgh Encyclopædia;" and from this moment his quickened and concentrated faculties were intent on reviving the old "evangelism of the puritans and the reformers." The heroism with which he avowed his change, and the fervor with which he proclaimed the gospel, made a great sensation in the quiet country round Kilmany; and at last the renown of this "upland Boanerges" began to spread over Scotland, when, in 1815, the town council of Glasgow invited him to be the minister of their

Tron church and parish. Thither he repaired, and in that city for eight years sustained a series of the most brilliant arguments and overpowering appeals in behalf of vital godliness, which devotion has ever kindled, or eloquence ever launched into the flaming atmosphere of human thought.

In 1817, Dr. Chalmers visited London. Here his popularity was not less overwhelming. The churches in which he was to preach were crowded to suffocation long before the service commenced; and among his auditors were a number of the distinguished clergy, peers, members of parliament, and literary characters of all classes and denominations. "All the world," writes Wilberforce in his diary, "is wild about Dr. Chalmers. Canning, Huskisson, Lords Elgin, Harrowby, &c., present. I was surprised to see how greatly Canning was affected; at times he was quite melted into tears."

After continuing about four years minister of the Tron church, Dr. Chalmers was removed to the new church of St. John's. In this new sphere he tried to give practical direction to the theories he had propounded relative to the support and the suppression of pauperism. In management, he expected it to become a model for all the parishes in Scotland, in the independence of its provision for the abatement of pauperism, as well as in the spiritual agency it was to adopt. But the work he had undertaken, and the invasions made upon his time, deprived him of that solitude so much required for pulpit preparations, especially such pulpit exhibitions as he was wont to give; and he was fain to seek relief in an academic retreat.

In 1824, he accepted the chair of moral philosophy at St. Andrew's university; in 1828, he was removed to the chair of theology in the university of Edinburgh; and here he prosecuted his multifarious labors—lecturing, preaching, publishing, organizing schemes for the welfare of the church, and taking an active management in her courts—till the disruption of the church of Scotland in 1843, when he joined the "Free Church," which he had mainly contributed to found, and became principal and professor of theology to the seceding body. From that period till he finished his course, there was no fatigue in his spirit, nor hesitation in his gait.

In the spring of 1847, Dr. Chalmers repaired to London, to give his evidence before the sites' committee of the house of commons. "He preached all the sabbaths of his sojourn in England, willingly and powerfully, and on the last sabbath of May he was again at home. That evening he is said to have remarked to a friend that he thought his public work completed. He had seen the disruption students through the four years of their course. He had seen the sustentation fund organized. He had been to parliament, and borne his testimony in high places. To-morrow he would give in the college report to the Free Assembly; and after that he hoped to be permitted to retire and devote to the West Port poor his remaining days. He was willing to decrease, and close his career as a city missionary. But just as he was preparing to take the lower room, the Master said, 'Come up hither,' and took him up beside himself. Next morning all that met the gaze of love was the lifeless form, in stately repose on the pillow, as one who beheld it said, 'a brow not cast in the mould of the sons of men.'" He died May 31, 1847, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

In this meager outline of the life of Dr. Chalmers, we have not alluded to the many valuable works which from time to time he gave to the world. His works published during his lifetime, in twenty-five volumes, embrace a variety of subjects, chiefly relating to theology and political economy; among these are his "Astronomical Discourses," first published in 1817, when they formed a new era in the history of pulpit oratory, and are even to this day read with the same avidity which hailed their first appearance. Besides these, nine volumes of posthumous works, consisting of "Daily Scripture Readings," "Insti-

tutes of 'Theology,' &c., have been published by his son-in-law, Dr. Hanna, to whose interesting memoirs of Dr. Chalmers we must refer the reader for the fullest information concerning the life and works of this illustrious man.

But we can not conclude this sketch without briefly inquiring what were the mental powers to which Dr. Chalmers owed the magic of his eloquence, and the energy of his character. In an analysis of his mind, the first power that meets us is his brilliant imagination. Kept always in check by his capacity for generalizing, and made a willing servant by his power of concentration, it was at all times ready to illustrate any subject he chose. It mattered not what the subject might be—defending his non-residence as a minister of the gospel, or pronouncing a eulogium on mathematics, maintaining his rights against the encroachments of heritors, enforcing the claims of patronage, propounding the civic economy of towns, or defending the presbyterian church, expatiating on the sublime truths of the gospel, or combating some popular prejudice—each and all he invested with such a splendor of imagination and magnificence of diction, as at once captivated and entranced.

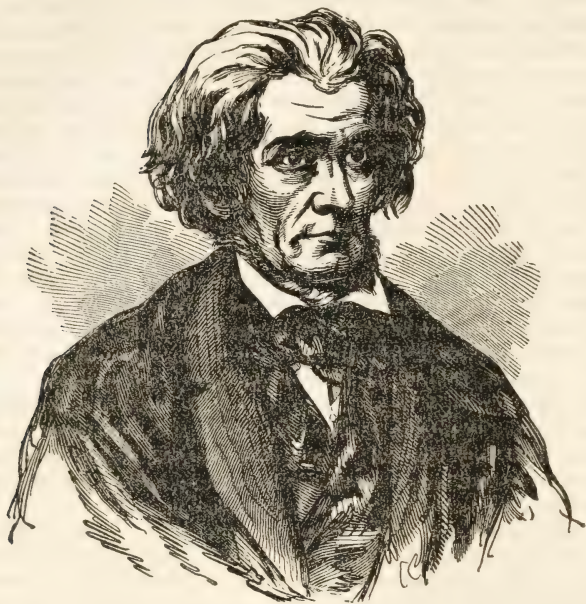
There are two points in the character of Dr. Chalmers which strike the attention as worthy of especial admiration—the union of the most profound humility with the highest genius, and a deeply-affectionate interest in the highest welfare of the human race. These noble traits characterized all his writings and actions, both as a public and private individual.

Casuists have arraigned Dr. Chalmers at the bar of strict political consistency, and object to the part he took in some public movements during his career; but an acquittal should be given, on the ground that he never pleaded any cause, unless convinced at the time that it was for the spiritual and temporal welfare of his fellow-men. But such defects in such a character are like motes in a sunbeam. Considered in every view—the preacher, swaying at will multitudes by the fascination of his eloquence—the philosopher, pointing out and illustrating analogies between the sublime truths of the Scriptures and the wonders of nature—the philanthropist, active and laborious in prosecuting the public good—or the man of God, humble and meek in disposition, and desirous of being conformed to the will of Heaven—we see one great by intellectual power, great by sanctified attainments—one on whose like Scotland will not soon look again.

JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN.

JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN was born in Abbeville, South Carolina, on the 18th of March, 1782. His grandfather, who had emigrated from Ireland to Pennsylvania in 1733, was one of the first settlers of that district, and his father a man of ability and daring energy of character, represented it in the colonial and state legislatures more than thirty years.

In his thirteenth year, Mr. Calhoun was placed at an academy in Georgia, of which Mr. Waddell, a presbyterian clergyman who had married his sister, was principal. But the death of his father, in 1796, caused an interruption of his studies, which were not resumed until he was nearly nineteen years of age. Having determined to be a planter, he had abandoned all thoughts of a classical education; but an elder brother at this period persuaded him to pursue one of the liberal professions, and he entered so earnestly upon the business of preparation, that within two years from his commencement of the Latin grammar he was received into the junior class of Yale college. It is related that after an animated controversy with the student, which arose during a class recitation



Portrait of John C. Calhoun.

from Paley, the eminent head of the college remarked to a friend that "the young man had talents enough to be president of the United States, and would one day attain to that station." The aim of his ambition was shown in the selection of his commencement thesis, which was, "The qualifications necessary to constitute a perfect statesman." He graduated in September, 1804, and immediately began the study of the law, in the well-known school of Litchfield, Ct., where he remained nearly two years.

Mr. Calhoun afterward passed several months in the office of the chancellor De Saussure in Charleston, and was admitted to the bar in Abbeville, in 1807. He at once took a high rank in the courts, and in 1809, was elected by a large majority to the state legislature, where he so distinguished himself that at the end of his second session he was transferred to the national house of representatives, in which he made his first appearance in the autumn of 1811. His fame having preceded him, he was appointed by the speaker, Henry Clay, to the second place on the committee of foreign affairs, and on the 19th of December, made his first speech in Congress on the war resolutions. The satisfaction given to his constituents secured his re-election in 1812, and again in 1814. During the war he advocated the most decisive measures, but hailed the proclamation of peace as a harbinger of good to the country. On the subject of the United States bank, which was agitated about this time, Mr. Calhoun advocated it on grounds of necessity and expediency, setting aside the question of its constitutionality. His course on some topics in the session of 1815-'16, made his re-election doubtful; but after an able defence to his constituents, he was again triumphantly returned, and continued in that capacity till March 3d, 1817.

Unexpectedly, in December, 1817, he was appointed secretary of war in the cabinet of Mr. Monroe. His services in the war department during the eight years of Mr. Monroe's administration are universally admitted to have been of vast importance to the country, and the estimation in which they were held at the time is shown in the large majority by which he was chosen vice-president

in the celebrated contest of 1824, when there was no choice by the people of president. He was again elected vice-president in 1828, but a rupture occurring between himself and General Jackson, he was thrown into the ranks of the opposition; and South Carolina soon after declaring the tariff law of that year unconstitutional, and threatening forcible resistance of its execution, he resigned the vice-presidency to accept a place on the floor of the senate as the special apologist and vindicator of his state in that memorable crisis of its affairs. His speeches on the force bill, on the federative principle of the constitution, and on the removal of the deposits, in the sessions of 1833, and 1834, are among the most earnest, able, and characteristic that he made during the time he held a seat in the senate. He remained in the senate until the death of Mr. Secretary Upshur in 1844, when he accepted the place of that gentleman in the department of state, which he held until the close of Mr. Tyler's administration. For the first time in many years he was without office, but he was soon called from his retirement to resume his place in the senate, where he appeared immediately after the great southern and western convention at Memphis, of which he was president, near the close of 1845.

At the meeting of Congress in 1849, Mr. Calhoun having long been afflicted with a pulmonary complaint, found his health failing, which it continued to do till he was unable to attend its sessions. Retiring to his room, he prepared his last great speech on the slavery question, which was then agitating the country. Unable to deliver it himself, it was read in his presence by Senator Mason of Va., March 4th, 1850. He was occasionally in the senate-chamber till the 13th, when his voice was heard for the last time in debate. His physical powers rapidly failed, and on the 31st of March, he breathed his last, having just completed his sixty-eighth year.

Mr. Calhoun is in many respects one of the most extraordinary men of the nineteenth century, and is undoubtedly one of the few for whom this period will be memorable in after-years. His eloquence was altogether unlike that which is supposed to belong to a new country, or to a democracy, which is the eloquence of passion. Its power was from an excessive refinement and compactness of reason, which requires the perfect submission of the mind, and carries it forward with irresistible force; and its glow from the vehement energy and rapidity with which his argument was conducted. In his intellectual constitution he more than any other statesman resembled Jonathan Edwards. His mind had the same quickness of perception, subtile sharpness of discrimination and comprehensive grasp. He had the same sincerity of conviction, fervor of tone, and heartiness of purpose. One of the differences between him and Edwards was in the manner of approaching a point of controversy. The great divine who gave to metaphysics so much of the exactness and certainty of mathematics, assailed the central proposition of his antagonist cautiously, and by various trains of reasoning, each of which seemed conclusive, but all of which, starting at different points and ending in the same result, were overwhelming. Mr. Calhoun, on the contrary, fixed his eye at once upon the essential issue, and upon this expended his whole force; and his clear and skillful analysis and rapid generalization were not unworthy of that great master of logic, to whom in perspicuousness of arrangement and in the hard polish of his diction he was frequently superior.

No man ever sustained a higher reputation than Mr. Calhoun in private life; and in society, with which he mixed but little, few were more distinguished for conversational abilities or graceful dignity and kindness of manners.



DANIEL WEBSTER.

DANIEL WEBSTER was born in the town of Salisbury, New Hampshire, January 18, 1782. His father, Major Ebenezer Webster, was one of the pioneers of the settlement in that quarter. He served with credit in the old French war, and also in the war of the Revolution, especially under Stark, at Bennington. Major Webster established himself in a newly-granted township at the confluence of the Winnipisiogee and Pemigewasset rivers, after the peace of 1763. In this region, then lying almost in a state of nature, the great orator and statesman was born, and passed the first years of his life. His opportunities of education were such as the common-schools of New England at that day afforded, and the instruction of his mother, whose maiden name was Abigail Eastman, a woman of character and intelligence. For a few months only, in 1796, he enjoyed the advantages of Phillips's Exeter academy. Here his education for college commenced; it was completed under the Rev. Dr. Wood, of Boscawen. He entered Dartmouth college in 1797, and, during the four years of his study there, gave plain indications of future eminence.

Soon after his graduation, he engaged in professional studies, first in his native village, and afterward at Fryeburg, in Maine, where at the same time he had the charge of an academy. He eked out his frugal salary by acting as a copyist in the office of register of deeds. He was moved to these strenuous exertions by the wish to aid his brother Ezekiel to obtain a college education. Having completed his law-studies in the office of Governor Gore, of Boston, he was admitted to the bar of Suffolk, Massachusetts, in the year 1805. He immediately commenced the practice of the law in his native state and county. His father, a man of sterling sense and character, who for the

last twelve years of his life had been a judge of the court of common pleas, died in 1806, but not without enjoying the satisfaction of hearing his son's first speeches at the bar. In 1807, Mr. Webster removed to Portsmouth, in his native state, to take his chance among the brilliant talent which honored the bar in that place, and soon became a leading counsel, in the enjoyment of an extensive practice. In 1808, he married Grace Fletcher, daughter of a clergyman of Hopkinton, New Hampshire. They had four children, of whom Fletcher only survived his parents.

In 1812, soon after the declaration of war against Great Britain, Mr. Webster was chosen one of the members of Congress from New Hampshire. Although among the youngest members of the house of representatives, and entirely without legislative experience, he rose at once to the front rank, both in the despatch of business and in debate. Among his associates in the house were Clay, Cheves, Lowndes, Calhoun, Forsyth, and other members of great ability. The speaker, Mr. Clay, placed him on the committee of foreign relations, and his maiden speech was on a resolution in relation to the Berlin and Milan decrees, which took Congress by surprise, for the masterly power displayed in it. It was soon felt and admitted that he was worthy to be named with the ablest of his compeers. It was the remark of Mr. Lowndes that "the south had not his superior, nor the north his equal."

Mr. Webster was opposed to the war before its commencement, but offered no serious impediment to its prosecution, and labored earnestly to improve the navy, as the best means of crippling the power of England. In 1814 he was re-elected to the house. In 1815, a national bank was proposed by the secretary of the treasury, with a capital of fifty millions, of which only five was to be in specie, and the government entitled to borrow thirty millions: this Mr. Webster opposed and it was lost, and a specie-paying bank was planned, which he supported, but it was vetoed by President Madison.

Finding the professional field at Portsmouth inadequate to the support of a growing family, Mr. Webster removed to Boston in 1816. His professional reputation had grown as rapidly as his fame as a statesman. He placed himself at once by the side of the leaders of the Massachusetts bar. He had already appeared before the supreme court of the United States in Washington; and by his brilliant argument in the Dartmouth college case, carried by appeal to Washington in 1817, he took rank among the most distinguished jurists in this country as a constitutional expounder.

In 1820, Mr. Webster was chosen a member of a convention called for the purpose of revising the constitution of Massachusetts. No one exercised a more powerful influence over its deliberations. The same year he delivered his grand oration at the second centennial celebration of the landing of the pilgrims at Plymouth; his Bunker-hill oration was pronounced five years afterward: these splendid efforts of his mind have probably been read more extensively than any others in our language. He was offered, about this time, a nomination as a senator of the United States, but declined. In 1822, he yielded to the most pressing solicitations to become a candidate for the place of representative of the city of Boston in the eighteenth Congress, and was chosen by a very large majority. This step involved a great sacrifice of professional interest. He took his seat in Congress in December, 1823, and early in the session made his celebrated speech on the Greek revolution, which at once established his reputation as one of the first statesmen of the age. In the autumn of the same year he was re-elected by an almost unanimous vote.

In 1826, he was again a candidate, and not a hundred votes were thrown against him. Under the presidency of Mr. Adams (1825-'29), he was the leader of the friends of the administration, first in the house of representatives and afterward in the senate of the United States, to which he was elected in

June, 1827. His great speech on the Panama mission was made in the first session of the nineteenth Congress. When the tariff-law of 1824 was brought forward, Mr. Webster spoke with great ability against it on the ground of expediency. He represented one of the greatest commercial constituencies in the Union; and his colleagues, with a single exception, voted with him against the bill. This law, however, forced a large amount of the capital of New England into manufactures; and in 1828, Mr. Webster sustained the law of that year for a more equal adjustment of the benefits of protection.

Mr. Webster remained in the senate under the administrations of General Jackson and Mr. Van Buren, a period of twelve years. During this time the most important questions were discussed, and measures of the highest moment were brought forward, and political events and combinations of the most novel and extraordinary character succeeded each other. Under the changes of men and measures, Mr. Webster maintained the position of a constitutional and patriotic statesman, second to none who had ever devoted himself to the service of his country. In 1830, he made his speech in reply to Colonel Hayne of South Carolina. This gentleman, in a speech on a resolution moved by Mr. Foote, of Connecticut, relative to the surveys of the public lands, had indulged in some personalities against Mr. Webster, had commented with severity on the political course of the New England states, and had laid down in rather an authoritative manner those views of the constitution usually known as the doctrines of "nullification." Mr. Webster was accordingly called upon to defend himself from the insinuations of the distinguished Senator from South Carolina, to vindicate New England, and to point out the fallacies of nullification. To accomplish these objects, he employed all the resources of the most skilful rhetoric, polished sarcasm, and acute argument. The records of modern eloquence contain nothing of superior force and beauty. The second speech of Mr. Webster in this debate may be regarded as the greatest effort of this consummate orator. Shaping his public course by principle, and not by the blind impulse of party, Mr. Webster, though opposed to the administration of General Jackson, gave it a cordial support in its measures for the defence of the Union in 1832-'33. The doctrines of the president's proclamation against the theories of South Carolina were mainly adopted from Mr. Webster's speeches, and he was the chief dependence of the administration upon the floor of Congress. His reply to Mr. Calhoun's speech on state rights was so ponderous an argument for the supremacy of the constitution of the United States, as to completely crush the spirit of nullification which had been gaining ground among statesmen of the south. When, however, the financial system of General Jackson was brought forward and fully developed, it was strenuously opposed by Mr. Webster. He foretold with accuracy the exposition which took place in the spring of 1837, and contributed materially to rally the public opinion of the country alike against the first phase of the new financial system, which was that of an almost boundless expansion of paper currency, issuing from the state banks, and the opposite extreme which was adopted as a substitute, that of an exclusive use of specie in all payments to or by the government, which resulted in the downfall of Mr. Van Buren's administration.

In 1839, Mr. Webster made a short visit to Europe. His time was principally passed in England, but he devoted a few weeks to the continent. His fame had preceded him to the Old World, and he was received with the attention due to his character and talents at the French and English courts, and in the highest circles of both countries.

On the accession of General Harrison to the presidency, Mr. Webster was placed at the head of his cabinet, as secretary of state; and his administration of the department during the two years he remained in it, under President

Tyler, was signalized by the most distinguished success. The United States was at that time involved in a long-standing controversy with Great Britain, on the subject of the northeastern boundary of Maine. To this had been added the difficult questions arising out of the detention of American vessels by British cruisers on the coast of Africa. Still more recently, the affair of M'Leod, in New York, had threatened an immediate rupture between the two governments. The correspondence between the United States' minister in London, Mr. Stevenson, and the British secretary of state for foreign affairs, Lord Palmerston (in 1841), was of an uncompromising character. Other causes of mutual irritation existed, which the limits of this sketch do not permit us to enumerate. Shortly after the accession of General Harrison, the Melbourne administration was overturned in England, and Sir Robert Peel returned to power. This contemporary change of government in the two countries was favorable to a settlement of the long-standing difficulties. Mr. Webster, after coming into the department of state, intimated to the British minister that the government of the United States was convinced of the impossibility of settling the boundary-line by adhering to the course hitherto pursued (that of topographical explorations, with a view to the literal execution of the treaty of 1783), but was prepared to adopt a conventional line, on the basis of mutual gain and concession, if such a line could be agreed upon. The new ministry, taking advantage of this overture, immediately determined to send Lord Ashburton, as a special envoy, to the United States, to negotiate upon this and the other subjects in controversy. Massachusetts and Maine were invited to take part by their commissioners in the negotiation; and on August 9, 1842, the treaty of Washington was ratified by the senate. By this treaty the boundary dispute, which had lasted fifty years, was happily adjusted. An amicable and efficient arrangement was made for joint action in the suppression of the slave-trade, and an agreement entered into for a mutual extradition of fugitives from justice. The other subjects of discussion at that period, between Great Britain and the United States, with the exception of the Oregon boundary, were happily disposed of in the correspondence accompanying the treaty. The terms of this important treaty were equally honorable and satisfactory to both parties. Mr. Tyler's cabinet was broken up in 1842, but Mr. Webster remained in office till the spring of 1843, being desirous of putting some other matters connected with our foreign relations in a prosperous train. Steps were taken by him in the winter of 1842-'3, which led to the recognition of the independence of the Sandwich islands by the principal maritime powers. His last official act was the preparation of the instructions of General Caleb Cushing, as commissioner for negotiating a treaty with China.

With the commencement of Mr. Polk's administration, Mr. Webster returned to the senate of the United States. He remained a member of that body during the whole of the administration of Mr. Polk, and till the death of General Taylor. Though unconnected with the executive government, he rendered the most material service in the settlement of the Oregon dispute. It has been publicly stated by Mr. M'Gregor, the distinguished member of parliament for Glasgow, that a letter written to him by Mr. Webster, and shown to the British ministers, led them to agree to the adoption of the line of boundary which was established in 1846. Mr. Webster opposed the Mexican war, fearing that acquisitions of territory would disturb the balance of the Union, and endanger its stability. He, however, concurred in granting the supplies which were required for the efficient conduct of the war. His second son, Major Edward Webster, with the approbation of his father, accepted a commission in the Massachusetts regiment of volunteers, and sunk under the exposures of the service in Mexico. The acquisition of Mexican territory led to agitations on the subject of slavery, which, during the years 1849-'50, seriously threatened

the Union. The question whether slavery should exist in the territory seemed likely to lead to the renewal of the Missouri controversy, aggravated by all the bitterness which has grown out of the struggles of the last fifteen years. Mr. Webster entertained the most serious apprehensions of an inauspicious result. The convention of the people of California having adopted a constitution by which that question was disposed of, without the interference of Congress, Mr. Webster believed that, by mutual concession on other points, the harmony of the south and north could be restored, and a severance of the Union averted. With a view to this consummation, he made his great speech of March 7, 1850, which attracted much attention from its favoring sentiment that he had opposed on previous occasions.

While the debates on the "compromise measures" were in progress in the senate, General Taylor died. The chair of state was assumed by vice-president Fillmore, who immediately called Mr. Webster to the department of state. His administration of the office was marked with characteristic ability and success. In December, 1850, the famous Hülsemann letter was written, which will ever remain a model for diplomatic controversy, where republican practice is questioned, from its lofty and dignified tone, and manly avowal of the foreign policy of the United States toward those who are struggling for freedom. By his firm and judicious manner of treating the Cuban question in 1851, Mr. Webster obtained of the Spanish government the pardon of the followers of the Lopez expedition, who had been deported to Spain. About the same time, he received from the English government an apology for the interference of a British cruiser with an American steamer in the waters of Nicaragua. This was the second time that the British government had made a similar concession at the instance of Mr. Webster. It has been affirmed that these are the only occasions on which the British government has ever apologized for the conduct of its affairs.

Several important diplomatic questions were in negotiation when Mr. Webster retired to his home at Marshfield, to attend to some domestic affairs, and recruit his failing health. About a week before his death alarming symptoms were manifested, which rapidly increased until his earthly career was closed on the 24th of October, 1852, in the seventy-first year of his age. His mental faculties remained unclouded till he met the messenger of death. The last words he uttered were: "I still live." And he will live, so long as the English language is spoken by man.

Mr. Webster was a man of a very majestic presence, which explains the great personal influence he possessed over all who approached him. With a well-set figure, broad and firm, he had a large and massive face, great black eyebrows, and deep, cavernous eyes, which were capped, like a noble dome on a stately building, by a forehead broad and massive as an ancient tower. Intellect sat enthroned upon it. His step was measured, his speech accurate and almost painfully slow, his voice deep and sonorous. He spoke like one having authority. His old-fashioned blue coat with gilt buttons, yellow waistcoat, and white hat, acquired a dignity for him. The mind of Webster was colossal: there was an inexpressible grandeur in its development, which at times seemed the incarnation of thought. His speeches are without comparison the grandest specimens of eloquence which our language, rich as it is with the spoils of time, contains. We shall seek in vain through the annals of our literature, for such breadth and comprehensiveness of views, such lucid and artistically beautiful style, such massiveness of imagination, and such noble, marked sublimity of thought, as can be found upon almost every page of his imperishable works. As an impressive orator, a profound lawyer, a masterly diplomatist, a clear expounder of constitutional questions, he stood confessedly the greatest statesman of the age.



MARTIN VAN BUREN

THE first seven presidents of the United States were all descendants of British ancestors, and all born previous to the Revolution. Mr. Van Buren, the eighth, was of Dutch parentage, and born subsequently to the achievement of our national independence. His ancestors on both sides originally settled in Kinderhook, on the banks of the Hudson, where the family still resides. Here he was born, December 5, 1782. At fourteen he commenced the study of law in the office of Francis Sylvester, Esq., a lawyer of Kinderhook, and during his term of study rendered himself well known and popular by his management of causes in the justices courts of the county. He was, like his father, an ardent democrat, and devoted much of his time and talents to politics. When only eighteen he was appointed by his fellow-townsmen delegate to a convention for nominating a candidate for the legislature, and was several times similarly complimented during his minority. The last year of his minority he passed in the city of New York, in the office of William P. Van Ness, Esq., an eminent member of the New York bar and a conspicuous leader of the democratic party. Here the young student attracted the notice of Colonel Aaron Burr, then vice-president of the United States, who numbered Mr. Van Ness among his most intimate friends and warmest defenders.

In 1803, Mr. Van Buren was admitted a member of the bar, and returned to Kinderhook to commence the practice of his profession. In 1807, he was admitted as counsellor in the supreme court, and the year afterward was appointed surrogate of Columbia county, and removed to Hudson, where he rapidly advanced in his profession. In 1815 he was appointed attorney-general

of the state, still continuing his practice, which had now become extensive and lucrative. In 1806, he was married to Miss Hannah Hoes, to whom he was distantly related, before their marriage. The intimacy which resulted in this union was formed in very early life. His ardent attachment to her was evinced on all occasions until the period of her decease, of consumption, in 1818. This lady left him four children, all sons.

In 1812, Mr. Van Buren was elected to the state senate, over Edward P. Livingston, by about two hundred majority. He was a democrat, and warmly advocated the embargo, the non-intercourse act, and other measures of Mr. Jefferson. In November, after his election, the legislature chose presidential electors, De Witt Clinton being the democratic candidate for president. The Clinton electoral ticket received Mr. Van Buren's warm support, and was elected. In 1813, the political relations existing between Mr. Van Buren and Mr. Clinton were dissolved, and the former supported Daniel D. Tompkins for re-election as governor.

In 1816, Mr. Van Buren was appointed a regent of the university, and in 1817, re-elected to the state senate for four years. When the great project of uniting the Hudson river with Lake Erie, by canal, was broached by Clinton, Van Buren gave it his hearty support, for which he received Clinton's personal thanks. He was, however, opposed to the administration of Clinton, after he was elected governor of the state, in 1818, and to his re-election to that office, in 1820.

In 1821, he was elected to the United States senate in place of Nathan Sanford, also a democrat. In a preliminary caucus, however, he received a majority of the votes of his party; and, although Mr. Sanford was supported by the Clintonians and federalists, Mr. Van Buren was elected by a vote of eighty-six to sixty. In the same year he was elected to the convention to revise the constitution of New York, in which he took a leading part. He took sides at once with the moderates—opposed on the one hand to the radicals, who advocated universal suffrage and an entire change in the form of government, and on the other to the conservatives, who were in favor of little or no change from the constitution of 1777. He voted with the majority to continue the right of voting to colored persons who were freeholders, and opposed the election of justices by the people.

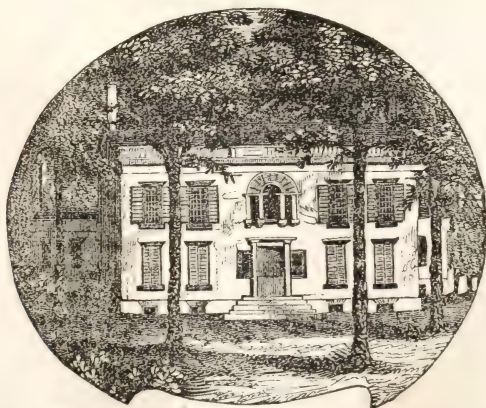
In the senate he took an active part against the administration of John Q. Adams, opposed the mission to Panama, the bills for internal improvements, etc., etc., but supported, in obedience to the will of his constituents, the protective tariff laws of 1824 and 1828. He was re-elected to the United States senate in 1827, but Governor Clinton having died in February, 1828, he was elected governor of his native state the following November. In his first message he proposed the celebrated safety-fund system, which was finally adopted by the legislature. In March, 1829, he was appointed by General Jackson secretary of state of the United States. In June, 1831, he left the cabinet, and was immediately afterward appointed minister to England, but was rejected by the senate, upon the meeting of Congress. On the 22d of May, 1832, Mr. Van Buren was nominated by the Baltimore national convention for vice-president on the ticket with General Jackson, and was elected. In 1835, he was nominated by the democratic national convention for president, and elected. He was nominated for re-election in 1840, but was defeated by General Harrison and retired to his family-seat at Kinderhook, which he named "Lindenwood." In 1844, it was determined by northern democratic leaders that Mr. Van Buren should again be nominated for the presidency; but the new element of Texas "annexation" (to which he had declared himself opposed) thrown into the contest, was fatal to his cause, and the nomination was given to Mr. Polk, who was elected over Mr. Clay. In 1848, being solicited by the free-soil party

of New York and other northern states to permit his name to be used as a candidate for president, he consented, not with the expectation, however, of being elected. He submitted with a graceful indifference to this second defeat, and still remains, in excellent health and spirits, at his beautiful retreat on the banks of the Hudson.

We conclude this brief memoir of Mr. Van Buren with the following notice of his personal appearance and character, from his life, by Professor Holland.—“In personal appearance, Mr. Van Buren is about the middle size; his form is erect (and formerly slender, but now inclining to corpulence), and is said to be capable of great endurance. His hair and eyes are light, his features animated and expressive, especially the eye, which is indicative of quick apprehension and close observation; his forehead exhibits in its depth and expansion, the marks of great intellectual power. The physiognomist would accord to him penetration, quickness of apprehension, and benevolence of disposition. The phrenologist would add unusual reflective faculties, firmness, and caution.

“The private character of Mr. Van Buren is above all censure or suspicion. As father and son, as husband, brother, and friend, he has always displayed those excellences of character and feeling which adorn human nature. The purity of his motives, his integrity of character, and the steadiness of his attachments, have always retained for him the warm affection of many, even among the ranks of his political opponents.

“The ease and frankness of his manners, his felicitous powers of conversation, and the general amiableness of his feelings, render him the ornament of the social circle. Uniting in his character, firmness and forbearance; habitual self-respect and a delicate regard for the feelings of others; neither the perplexities of legal practice, nor the cares of public life, nor the annoyance of party strife, have ever been able to disturb the serenity of his temper, or to derange for a moment the equanimity of his deportment. He has with equal propriety mingled in the free intercourse of private life, and sustained the dignity of official station.”



Lindenwold, Residence of Martin Van Buren, Kinderhook, N. Y.

NOTE.—In inserting the foregoing biographical sketch of Mr. Van Buren, as also those of Tyler, Fillmore and Pierce, to be found on subsequent pages, we have departed slightly from a rule which has guided us in the preparation of this volume—that of limiting it to memoirs of the illustrious dead. Of all the distinguished individuals who have occupied the executive chair of the United States, since the adoption of the constitution, but the three above-named are now living; and believing it would add to the interest and value of the work, by making the gallery of presidential portraits complete, we have included sketches of the entire galaxy of eminent men who have occupied that exalted and responsible station.



JOHN JAMES AUDUBON.

JOHN JAMES AUDUBON was born in Louisiana, about the year 1782. He was of French descent, and his parents perceiving early the bent of his genius, sent him to Paris to pursue his education. While there he attended schools of natural history and the arts, and in drawing took lessons from the celebrated David. He returned in his eighteenth year, and his father soon after gave him a farm near Philadelphia, where the Perkioming creek falls into the Schuylkill. Its fine woods offered him numerous subjects for his pencil, and here he commenced that series of drawings which ultimately swelled into the magnificent collection of "The Birds of America." Here, too, he was married, and here was born his eldest son. He engaged in commercial speculations, but was not successful. His love for the fields and flowers, the forest and their winged inhabitants, we readily suppose unfitted him for the trade. At the end of ten years he removed to the west. There were then no steamboats on the Ohio, and few villages and no cities on its shores. Reaching that noble river in the warm days of autumn, he purchased a small boat in which with his wife and child and two rowers he leisurely pursued his way down to Henderson in Kentucky, where his family resided several years. In 1810, he mentions hav-

ing first met with Wilson* of whom till then he had never heard. Wilson called at Audubon's counting-room in Louisville to explain the nature of his occupations and request his patronage for his work on Ornithology.

The merchant was surprised and gratified at the sight of his volumes, and had taken a pen to add his name to the list of subscribers, when his partner said to him in French, "My dear Audubon, what induces you to do so? your own drawings are far better, and you must know as much of the habits of American birds as this gentleman." Wilson inquired whether Audubon had any drawings of birds, and was greatly surprised at the contents of the port-folio of the amateur ornithologist.

Audubon soon after abandoned his day-books and ledgers, and in 1811, we find him with his rifle and drawing paper among the bayous of Florida, and in the following years making long and tedious journeys, searching the forests and prairies, the shores of rivers, lakes, gulfs, and seas, for the subjects of his immortal work, though at the time he had no thought of their publication.

On the 5th of April, 1824, he visited Philadelphia, where the late Dr. Mease whom he had known on his first arrival in Pennsylvania, presented him to Charles Lucien Bonaparte, who in his turn introduced him to the Lyceum of Natural History. He perceived that he could look for no patronage in this city, and so proceeded to New York, where he was received with a kindness well suited to elevate his depressed spirits, and afterward ascending the Hudson went westward to the great lakes, and in the wildest solitudes of the pathless forests renewed his labors. He now began to think of visiting Europe; the number of his drawings had greatly increased notwithstanding a misfortune by which two hundred of them, representing nearly a thousand birds, had been destroyed; and he fancied his work under the hands of the engraver. "Happy days and nights of pleasing dreams" followed, as he retired farther from the haunts of men, determined to leave nothing undone which could be accomplished by time or toil. Another year and a half passed by; he returned to his family, then in Louisiana; and having explored the woods of that state, at last sailed for England, where he arrived in 1826. In Liverpool and Manchester his works procured him a generous reception from the most distinguished men of science and letters; and when he proceeded to Edinburgh and exhibited there his four hundred paintings, "the hearts of all warmed toward Audubon," says Professor Wilson, "who were capable of conceiving the difficulties, dangers, and sacrifices, that must have been encountered, endured, and overcome, before genius could have embodied these, the glory of its innumerable triumphs." "The man himself," at this period writes the same eloquent author in another work, "is just what you would expect from his productions; full of fine enthusiasm and intelligence, most interesting in his looks and manners, a perfect gentleman, and esteemed by all for the simplicity and frankness of his nature."

* ALEXANDER WILSON was born at Paisley, Scotland, in 1766. He was brought up as a weaver, but his poetical disposition, and relish for the quiet and sequestered beauties of nature beginning to assume almost the character of a passion, he gave utterance to his feelings in verse. After having been prosecuted and imprisoned for libelling the master-weavers of Paisley, during a violent dispute which had broken out between them and the journeyman, Wilson emigrated to America, and landed in Delaware in 1794, with his fowling-piece in his hand, and only a few shillings in his pocket, without a friend or letter of introduction. In the varied occupations of a weaver, pedlar, and schoolmaster, he toiled on for upward of eight years, during which time he tasked his powers to the very utmost in his efforts at self-improvement; and among the acquirements thus obtained were the arts of drawing, coloring, and etching, which afterward proved of such incalculable use to him when bringing out his "Ornithology." In October, 1804, he set out upon an expedition to the falls of Niagara; and, wading on through the mud and snow, encumbered with his gun and fowling-bag, he arrived safely at home, after an absence of fifty-nine days, during which he had walked 1260 miles. From this time forward, Wilson applied his whole energies to his ornithological work, drawing, etching, and coloring all the plates himself; and Mr Bradford, a bookseller of Philadelphia, having agreed to run all the risk of publication, in 1808 the first volume of his "American Ornithology," made its appearance. Another and another volume followed, until he had completed seven volumes. Honors as well as profits soon after began to pour in upon him, and he was made a member of several learned societies. But his end was fast approaching. In August, 1813, he was attacked with dysentery which carried him off in a few days.

His reception encouraged Audubon to proceed immediately with his plans of publication. It was a vast undertaking which it would take probably sixteen years to accomplish, and when his first drawings were delivered to the engraver he had not a single subscriber. His friends pointed out the rashness of the project and urged him to abandon it. "But my heart was nerved," he exclaims, "and my reliance on that Power on whom all must depend brought bright anticipations of success." Leaving his work in the care of his engravers and agents, he visited Paris, in the summer of 1828, and received the homage of the most distinguished men of science in that capital. The ensuing winter was passed in London, and in April, 1829, he returned to America to explore anew the woods of the middle and southern states. Accompanied by his wife he left New Orleans on the eighth of January, 1830, for New York, and on the twenty-fifth of April, just a year from the time of his departure, he was again in the great metropolis. Before the close of 1830, he had issued his first volume, containing one hundred plates, representing ninety-nine species of birds, every figure of the size and colors of life. The applause with which it was received was enthusiastic and universal. The kings of England and France had placed their names at the head of his subscription list; he was made a fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh; a member of the Natural History Society of Paris, and other celebrated institutions; and Cuvier, Swainson, and indeed the great ornithologists of every country, exhausted the word of panegyric in his praise.

On the first of August, 1831, Audubon arrived once more in New York, and having passed a few days with his friends there and in Philadelphia, proceeded to Washington, where the president and other principal officers of the government gave him letters of assistance and protection to be used all along the coasts and inland frontiers where there were collectors of revenue or military or naval forces. He had previously received similar letters from the king's ministers to the authorities of the British colonies.

The ensuing winter and spring were passed in the Floridas and in Charleston; and early in the summer, bending his course northward to keep pace with the birds in their migrations, he arrived in Philadelphia, where he was joined by his family. The cholera was then spreading death and terror through the country, and on reaching Boston he was himself arrested by sickness and detained until the middle of August.

Proceeding at length upon his mission, he explored the forests of Maine and New Brunswick and the shores of the bay of Fundy, and chartering a vessel at Eastport, sailed for the gulf of St. Lawrence, the Magdalen islands and the coast of Labrador. Returning as the cold season approached, he visited Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, and rejoining his family proceeded to Charleston, where he spent the winter, and in the spring, after nearly three years' travel and research, sailed a third time for England.

The second volume of "The Birds of America" was finished in 1834, and in December of that year he published in Edinburgh the second volume of the Ornithological Biography. Soon after, while he was in London, a nobleman called upon him, with his family, and on examining some of his original drawings, and being told that it would still require eight years to complete the work, subscribed for it, saying, "I may not see it finished, but my children will." The words made a deep impression on Audubon. "The solemnity of his manner I could not forget for several days," he writes in the introduction to his third volume; "I often thought that neither might I see the work completed, but at length exclaimed, 'My sons may;' and now that another volume, both of my illustrations and of my biographies, is finished, my trust in Providence is augmented, and I can not but hope that myself and my family together may be permitted to see the completion of my labors." When this was written, ten

years had elapsed since the publication of his first plate. In the next three years, among other excursions he made one to the western coast of the Florida and to Texas, in a vessel placed at his disposal by our government; and at the end of this time appeared the fourth and concluding volume of his engravings, and the fifth of his descriptions. The whole comprised four hundred and thirty-five plates, containing one thousand and sixty-five figures, from the bird of Washington to the humming-bird of the size of life, and a great variety of land and marine views, and floral and other productions, of different climates and seasons, all carefully drawn and colored after nature. Well might the great naturalist felicitate himself upon the completion of his gigantic task. He had spent nearly half a century "amid the tall grass of the far-extended prairies of the west, in the solemn forests of the north, on the heights of the midland mountains, by the shores of the boundless ocean, and on the bosoms of our vast bays, lakes, and rivers, searching for things hidden since the creation of this wondrous world from all but the Indian who has roamed in the gorgeous but melancholy wilderness." And speaking from the depth of his heart he says, "Once more surrounded by all the members of my dear family, enjoying the countenance of numerous friends who have never deserted me, and possessing a competent share of all that can render life agreeable. I look up with gratitude to the Supreme Being, and feel that I am happy."

In the year 1842, Mr. Audubon began a collection of the quadrupeds of America, similar to his magnificent work on the birds. He had already, at that time, materials enough to make five large volumes, and it was the impression of those who saw his original colored drawings, that the work, when completed, would make a grander monument to his memory than any he had yet executed. The animals were drawn of the size of life, with all that accuracy of outline, that grace and vigor of action, and fidelity of form and color, which characterized his pencil. This work was completed about the time of his death.

The last years of Mr. Audubon's life were passed at a beautiful estate, called Minniesland, on the banks of the Hudson, some eight or ten miles from New York, where the beauty of the scenery, and the kind hospitality of its distinguished occupants, made it an agreeable resort for all who had the honor of their acquaintance. His health, however, had been failing, and his long and arduous labors began to wear upon his constitution, and on the 27th of January, 1851, he died in the seventieth year of his age.

In person, Mr. Audubon was tall, with a fine elastic form, and most striking appearance. His face, with its aquiline nose and keen eyes, sometimes reminded one of the beak of the eagle. His action was quick, and his conversation lively and spirited. Owing to his French extraction, he spoke with an accent, in a soft and gentle voice, but with great earnestness of conviction. He was noted for the simple-heartedness and kindness of his disposition, his habits were temperate and frugal, and his attachment to his family profound.

A peculiar ease, vigor, and animation, mark Mr. Audubon's written style. His descriptions of birds in their various moods are not the dull and dry details of a naturalist, but the warm, lively, picturesque paintings of a poet. To open at any page of his volumes is to step at once into a region of agreeable forms and enrapturing sounds. He seems to enter into the very spirits of birds themselves, sings when they sing, and rises upon the wing when they fly. And his whole life, like theirs, seems to have been a perpetual and cheerful ascription of praise, to that

"Power whose care
Teaches their way along the pathless coast,
The desert and illimitable air—
Lone wandering, but not lost."



SIMON BOLIVAR.

THIS extraordinary military commander was the great parent of South American liberty, and he exhibited during the progress of the revolution, which he ultimately lived to see perfected, the most undeviating patriotism.

SIMON BOLIVAR was born of noble parents, in Caraccas, the capital city of Venezuela, July 24, 1783. After acquiring the first elements of a liberal education at home, he repaired to Europe; and having completed his studies at Madrid, he visited Paris, where he formed an acquaintance with several distinguished men. He then made the tour of southern Europe, again visited the Spanish capital, and married the young and beautiful daughter of the marquis de Ustariz del Cro; but soon after his return to his native land, whither she accompanied him, his youthful bride fell a victim to the yellow fever; and he once more visited Europe as a relief to his sorrow for one so fervently beloved.

On his return home in 1810, Bolivar passed through the United States—and the lesson of liberty which he here received in the admirable working of our system of government was not without its fruits; for, on his arrival in Venezuela, he embarked in the plans of the patriots, and pledged himself to the cause of independence. Bolivar being one of the chief promoters of the movement in Caraccas of April 19, 1810, which is considered as the beginning of the revolution, he received a colonel's commission from the supreme junta then established, and was associated with Don Luis Lopez Mendez for the purpose of communicating intelligence of the change of government to Great Britain. He took part in the first military operations of the Venezuelan patriots after the

declaration of independence, in 1811, serving under Miranda in an expedition against a body of royalists in Valencia, who thus early took a stand opposed to the revolution. After the earthquake of March, 1812, the war was commenced in earnest by the advance of Monteverde with the Spanish troops; and the command of the important post of Puerto Cabello was intrusted to Bolivar. But the Spanish prisoners in the castle of San Felipe, which commanded the town, corrupted one of the patriot officers, and obtained possession of the castle, so that he was compelled to evacuate the place.

Many of those persons who were deeply committed in the revolution now sought to leave their country; and Bolivar succeeded in obtaining a passport, and escaping to Curaçoa. Unable, however, to remain a cold spectator of the events occurring on the continent, he repaired to Carthagena, in September, 1812, and, with other emigrants from Caraccas, entered into the service of the patriots of New Grenada. He undertook an expedition against Teneriffe, a town higher up on the river Magdalena, occupied by the Spaniards, captured it, and, gathering forces on the way, he proceeded to Mompex, driving the Spaniards from Upper Magdalena, and finally entered the city of Ocaña in triumph.

These successes now directed public attention to Bolivar, and he was invited to attempt the expulsion of the Spanish division under Correa from Cucuta. Having, by the skill and celerity of his movements, achieved this operation without loss, he conceived the bold project of invading Venezuela with his little army, and delivering it from the powerful forces under Monteverde. The congress of New Grenada gratified him in this respect, and created him brigadier. After driving Correa from the valleys of Cucuta, Bolivar, with a small force of but little more than five hundred men, and heedless of the accusations of rashness, plunged into the Venezuelan province of Merida, the inhabitants of whose capital rose upon the Spaniards on learning of his approach. The defeat of the royalists under Canas at Carache, by Jirardot, wholly freed the provinces of Merida and Trujillo. Bolivar had despatched a small force under Colonel Briceno to occupy Varinas; Briceno was defeated, and, with seventeen of his companions, and many patriots of Varinas, was shot in cold blood by the Spanish commandant Fiscar. This outrage, with a knowledge of the horrid cruelties perpetrated throughout Venezuela by Monteverde, justly exasperated Bolivar, and he issued the famous decree of *guerra á muerte*, condemning to death all the Spanish prisoners who might fall into his hands. But he was not of a sanguinary temper; and this decree seems to have been intended rather to intimidate the royalists, than literally to be put in execution. His army increasing daily, which he separated into two divisions, Bolivar rapidly advanced; and at length, by the decisive victory of Lastoguanes, in which the flower of Monteverde's troops were completely defeated, opened to himself the road to Caraccas. Monteverde shut himself up in Puerto Cabello, and Bolivar at once marched upon the capital, which the Spaniards evacuated without a struggle. Meantime, Marino had liberated eastern Venezuela, of which the patriots had regained entire possession, excepting only the fortress of Puerto Cabello.

The whole authority in Venezuela at this period centred in Bolivar; and it was resolved, in a convention of the principal civil and military officers, assembled at Caraccas in 1814, to confirm the dictatorial powers which circumstances had already thrown upon the general. A desperate contest now ensued between the royalist and patriot forces; and, after various vicissitudes, Bolivar was defeated by Boves at the battle of La Puerta, and forced to embark for Cumana, with the remnant of his army, so that Caraccas was retaken by the Spaniards, and the royalists were again undisputed masters of Venezuela. Once more, therefore, Bolivar appeared in Carthagena as a fugitive, and proceeded to the New Grenadian congress, then sitting in Tunja, to give an account of his brilliant, but, in the result, disastrous expedition. He received the applause mer-

ited by one who had needed only resources proportionate to his talents to have accomplished the permanent deliverance of his country.

The congress having organized an expedition against the city of Bogota, for the purpose of compelling the province of Cundinamarca to accede to the general union of the provinces of New Grenada, Bolivar was intrusted with the delicate task of commanding the forces of the union upon this occasion, and marched against Santa Fé de Bogota early in December, 1814, at the head of nearly two thousand men. He invested the city, drove in the outposts, stormed the suburbs, and was preparing to assault the great square, where the dictator Alvarez and the troops of Cundinamarca were posted, when the latter capitulated, and became subject thenceforth to the general government of New Grenada. For this service he received the thanks of the congress.

Bolivar remained in Kingston, Jamaica, while the royalist general Morillo was reducing Carthagena and overrunning New Grenada. During his residence there, a hireling Spaniard made an attempt upon his life, and would have assassinated him, if it had not happened that another person occupied Bolivar's bed at the time, who was stabbed to the heart.

From Kingston, Bolivar repaired to Aux Cayes, in Hayti, and assisted by private individuals, and with a small force furnished by President Petion, formed an expedition, in conjunction with Commodore Brion, to join Arismendi, who had raised the standard of independence anew in the island of Margarita. He arrived in safety at Margarita in May, 1816, and, sailing thence, landed on the main land near Cumana, but in a few months was encountered by the Spaniards under Morales at Ocumare, and compelled to re-embark. Nothing disheartened by this failure, he obtained reinforcements at Aux Cayes, and in December, 1816, landed once more in Margarita. There he issued a proclamation convoking the representatives of Venezuela in a general congress; and thence passed over to Barcelona, where he organized a provincial government, and gathered forces to resist Morillo, who was approaching with a powerful division. They encountered each other in a desperate conflict, which ended in Bolivar's obtaining the victory. Morillo retreated in disorder, and was met and defeated anew by General Paez, with his irresistible *Llaneros*. Bolivar, being now recognised as supreme chief, proceeded in his career of victory, and before the close of the year 1817 had fixed his headquarters at Angostura. In February, 1819, he presided at the opening of the congress of Angostura, and submitted an elaborate exposition of his views of government. He also surrendered his authority into the hands of the congress, which required him to resume it, and to retain it until the independence of his country should be fully achieved. Bolivar soon reorganized his forces, and set out from Angostura with the purpose of crossing the Cordilleras, and effecting a junction with General Santander, who commanded the republican forces in New Grenada, so that the united arms of the two republics might act with the greater efficiency. In July, 1819, he reached Tunja, which city he entered after a battle on the neighboring heights; and, on the 7th of August, gained the great and splendid victory of Bojaca, which gave him immediate possession of Santa Fé and all New Grenada. The viceroy Semano fled precipitately before him; and he was enthusiastically welcomed in Santa Fé as a deliverer, appointed president and captain-general of the republic, and enabled by the new resources of men, money, and munitions of war, which he found there, to prepare for returning into Venezuela with an army sufficient to insure the complete expulsion of the Spaniards.

Bolivar's entry into Angostura, after his glorious campaign in New Grenada, was a peculiarly gratifying and affecting spectacle. Its whole population hailed him as the liberator and father of his country. He now obtained the great fundamental law uniting Venezuela and New Grenada, under the title of "The Republic of Colombia." Meanwhile, the seat of government was transferred

provisionally to Rosario de Cucuta ; and Bolivar again took the field at the head of the most formidable army that had been assembled by the independents. After a series of memorable advantages over the Spaniards, an armistice of six months was negotiated at Trujillo, between Bolivar and Morillo : the latter soon afterward returned to Spain, leaving La Torre in command. At the termination of the armistice, Bolivar made a great effort to finish the war by a decisive blow, and attained his object, by vanquishing La Torre in the famous battle of Carabobo, fought in 1821, leaving the Spaniards only the broken fragments of an army which took refuge in Puerto Cabello, and there, after a protracted and obstinate struggle of more than two years, surrendered to General Paez.

The battle of Carabobo may be regarded as having put an end to the war in Venezuela. Bolivar entered Caraccas, June 29, 1821, having now for the third time rescued his native city from its oppressors, and was received with transports of joy. By the close of the year, the Spaniards were driven from every part of the country, except Puerto Cabello and Quito. August 30, 1821, a permanent constitution was established, under which Bolivar was elected the first president and General Santander vice-president. Having thus achieved the independence of his own country, Bolivar placed himself at the head of the liberating army, destined to expel the Spaniards from Quito and Peru. The fate of Quito was decided by the battle of Pichincha, fought in June, 1822, and gained by the talents and prowess of Sucre. Aware that the southern provinces of Colombia could never be secure while Peru remained subject to Spain, and anxious to extend the blessings of independence to all America, Bolivar resolved to march upon Lima, and assist the Peruvians. The royalists evacuated Lima at his approach ; and Bolivar, entering the capital amid the acclamations of the people, was invested with supreme power : but, being opposed by some of the factions which distracted Peru, he returned to Trujillo, in northern Peru, leaving Lima to be retaken by the Spaniards under Canterac. On the 6th of August, 1824, Bolivar defeated the royalists on the plains of Junin, and Sucre soon after gained the splendid victory of Ayacucho. Nothing was now left to the Spaniards in Peru but the castles of Callao, finally taken in 1826.

In June, 1825, Bolivar visited Upper Peru, which detached itself from the government of Buenos Ayres, and was formed into a new republic, named BOLIVIA, in honor of the liberator. The congress, assembled in August, declared him perpetual protector of the republic, and he repaired to Lima for the purpose of preparing for Bolivia a constitution and government.

In December, 1824, Bolivar convoked a congress to assemble in Lima the ensuing February ; but the country being in an unsettled state, this body conferred dictatorial powers on Bolivar for another year. They also urged on him a grant of a million of dollars, which he nobly declined. Congress soon adjourned, and Bolivar remained absolute governor of Peru. Residing partly at Lima and partly at Magdalena, he directed the acts of the government, and at this period proposed the celebrated congress of Panama, for the purpose of establishing a stable alliance between all the independent states of America, and to which delegates were sent from our own Union. In May, 1826, Bolivar presented to the congress of Bolivia his plan of a constitution, with an address containing his opinions of the form of government required by the new republics of the south. This document, which recommended an irresponsible president for life, with power to nominate his successor, greatly alarmed the republicans of Buenos Ayres and Chili, who feared or pretended to fear an invasion from Bolivar ; while in Peru he was accused of a design to unite that republic permanently with Colombia and Bolivia, and to make himself perpetual dictator ; and the continuance of Colombian troops in Peru after the surrender of Callao and the final expulsion of the Spaniards, gave color to the charge. Bolivar manifested no disposition to depart, and in 1826 he submitted to the

electoral colleges of Peru a form of constitution precisely similar to that of the Bolivian code, and under this instrument he was elected president for life.

Before this time, however, events had transpired in Colombia which demanded the presence of Bolivar in his native country. During his absence, the vice-president, Santander, had administered the government with ability and uprightness. Colombia had been recognised by other countries as an independent state; its territory was divided into departments, and its government regularly organized. But in April, 1826, General Paez, who commanded in Venezuela, being accused before the Colombian senate of arbitrary conduct in the enrolment of the citizens of Caraccas in the militia, refused obedience to the summons of the senate, and openly rebelled against the government. He was joined by all those in Venezuela opposed to a central form of government; and thus the northern departments became virtually separated, for the time being, from the rest of the republic. But all professed a readiness to submit their grievances to Bolivar, and anxiously required his return to Colombia. Meanwhile the pretended federalists in the southern departments held public meetings, voted to adopt the Bolivian code, and lodged the authority of dictator in the hands of Bolivar. The central departments alone, answering to New Grenada, continued faithful to the constitution. These circumstances imperiously demanded the presence of Bolivar. Accordingly, he set out from Lima in September, 1826, committing the government to a council of his own appointment, and responsible to him alone, with General Santa Cruz at its head, and leaving the whole of the Colombian auxiliary army in Peru and Bolivia. Bolivar made all haste to reach Bogota, which he entered November 14, 1826, and, assuming the extraordinary powers belonging to him as president, he remained only a few days in the capital, and pressed on to stop the effusion of blood in Venezuela. He went, accompanied merely by a small escort, although forces were in readiness to sustain him if requisite, and all the demonstrations of insurrection vanished at his approach. He reached Puerto Cabello December 31, and immediately issued a decree, dated January 1, 1827, giving assurance of a general amnesty to the insurgents on their peaceably submitting to his authority, and engaging to call a convention for the reform of the constitution. He had a friendly meeting with Paez, and soon after entered Caraccas.

Bolivar and Santander had respectively been re-elected to the offices of president and vice-president, and should have been qualified anew as such in January, 1827. But in February, Bolivar addressed a letter from Caraccas to the president of the senate, renouncing the presidency of the republic, and expressing a determination to repel the imputations of ambition cast upon him, by retiring to seclusion upon his patrimonial estate. Santander, in reply, urged him to resume his station as constitutional president, convinced that the troubles and agitations of the country, if they were not occasioned by the intrigues of Bolivar himself, might at any moment be quieted by his lending the authority of his name, and his personal influence, to the cause of the constitution. But distrust, suspicion, and jealousy of the conduct and intentions of Bolivar, now filled all the friends of republican institutions. He had recorded his confession of political faith, in the anti-republican Bolivian code, and he was believed to be anxious for its introduction into Colombia. When his renunciation of the presidency was submitted to the consideration of the congress, a portion of the members urged that body to accept the renunciation. They publicly accused him of being in concert with Paez, of having designedly thrown the whole nation into discord and confusion, in order to create a false impression of the necessity of bestowing upon himself the dictatorship. But a majority of the members insisted upon his retaining the presidency, and required his presence at Bogota, to take the constitutional oaths. Before he came, however, they had passed a decree of general amnesty, a decree for assembling a national conven-

tion at Ocaña, and a decree for re-establishing constitutional order throughout Colombia. His arrival was hastened by unexpected events, touching him personally, which had occurred in Peru and the southern departments. Not long after his departure from Lima, the returns of the electoral colleges were received by the council of government, by which the Bolivian code was pronounced to be the constitution of Peru, and Bolivar the president for life. The constitution was accordingly promulgated officially, and was sworn to by the public functionaries in Lima, December 9, 1826, the anniversary of the victory of Ayacucho. At this time the Colombian auxiliary army in Peru was cantoned in three divisions, one stationed in Upper Peru and two in Lower Peru (one of these at Arequipa and one at Lima). The third division consisted of veteran companions of Bolivar's triumphs, and was commanded by his personal friends, Generals Lara and Sands. Notwithstanding the attachment of these troops to Bolivar, they had lately been growing distrustful of his designs; and although they did not feel disposed, it would seem, to thwart his views upon Peru, they took alarm immediately when they saw cause to believe that he had similar views upon their own native Colombia. The consequence was, that, in the short space of six weeks after the new constitution was solemnly adopted, they came forward and revolutionized the government of Peru. So well were their measures taken, that, January 26, 1827, they arrested their general officers without any conflict or opposition, placed themselves under the command of Bustamente, one of their colonels, and announced to the inhabitants of Lima that their sole object was to relieve the Peruvians from oppression, and to return home to protect their own country against the alleged ambitious schemes of the dictator. The Peruvians immediately abjured the Bolivian code, deposed Bolivar's council of ministers, and proceeded, in perfect freedom, to organize a provisional government for themselves.

Arrangements were speedily made, after this bloodless revolution was effected, to transport the third division to Guayaquil, according to their own desire. They embarked at Callao, March 17, and landed in the southern department of Colombia in April, part of them proceeding for Guayaquil, and part for Cuenca and Quito, uniformly declaring their object to be the restoration of constitutional order, in opposition to any designs upon the public entertained by the dictator. Intelligence of these events reached Bolivar while he was still in the north of Colombia. Rousing himself instantly from his long-continued inactivity, he made preparations for marching to the other extremity of the republic and reducing the third division. But these troops, finding the government was in the hands of the regular national executive, had peaceably submitted to General Ovando, who was sent, by the constitutional authorities, for the purpose of taking the command. Bolivar meanwhile signified his consent to be qualified as president, and proceeded with this intention to Bogota, where he took the oaths prescribed by the constitution, and resumed the functions belonging to his office. In 1828, he assumed the supreme power in Colombia; and though he was beset by the jealousy and distrust of rival factions, he continued to exercise the chief authority till May, 1830, when, dissatisfied with the aspect of internal affairs, he resigned the presidency, and expressed a determination to leave the country. The people ere long became sensible of their injustice to his merit, and were soliciting him to resume the government, when his death prevented the accomplishment of their wishes. He died at San Pedro, December 17, 1830, in the forty-eighth year of his age.

In person, Bolivar was of ordinary stature; ungraceful in his air and movements; thin and spare, but capable of great endurance; of an olive complexion, with black, coarse hair, thin in front; broad, bushy eyebrows, overshadowing an eye somewhat sunken, but full of fire and expression. His intellect was of the highest order, and his general character of that ardent, lofty cast, so well calculated to take the lead among a people emerging from the yoke of despotism.



ZACHARY TAYLOR.

ZACHARY TAYLOR, the twelfth president of the United States, was born in Orange county, Virginia, on the 24th of November, 1784, and was the seventh president of the United States born in the "Old Dominion," which has been termed the "Mother of Presidents." The year after his birth, his father removed to Kentucky, only ten years after the first white man's habitation had been erected in that region. Colonel Richard Taylor, the father of the president, had been preceded to Kentucky by his brother, Hancock Taylor, who lost his life among the Indians, while surveying lands in the valley of the Ohio, and Colonel Taylor died at Louisville, leaving three sons and three daughters.

Young Zachary was reared in the profession of a farmer, and from childhood was inured to the hard fare and rough accommodations of a pioneer life, which so admirably fitted his frame for the endurance of those rigors incident to a frontier military career of forty years. He early indicated an ardent love for the military profession; and at the time of Colonel Burr's movements, he and his brothers enrolled themselves in a volunteer company raised to act against him, should it become necessary.

Lieutenant Hancock Taylor, the brother of the president, having died, Zachary received from Mr. Jefferson, on the 3d of May, 1808, a commission as lieutenant in the United States army, being then in the twenty-fourth year of his age. In 1810, he was married to Miss Margaret Smith, daughter of Major R. S. Smith, of Maryland, of the marine corps. After the declaration of war in 1812, Lieutenant Taylor was placed in command of Fort Harrison, a block-house and stockade erected on the Wabash, about fifty miles above Vincennes. It was at this point that the long-meditated attack of the Indians upon the fron-

tier posts of the Americans commenced. The garrison consisted of only fifty men, two thirds of whom were sick, and Captain Taylor himself had just recovered from a fever. On the 3d of September, the Indians made their appearance, resorting to the common treachery of sending a white flag as a token of their peaceful intentions. Taylor, however, was not deceived by the device, and continued the most vigorous measures of defence of which his situation was capable. Setting a watch at night, the remainder of the little garrison retired to rest. An hour before midnight, however, they were aroused by a musket-shot, and the attack commenced in earnest. The Indians had already set fire to the lower building, which was extinguished by the greatest exertions, while a sharp fire was kept upon the assailants, who suffered severely from it. The conflict lasted for seven hours; and when daylight broke, the Indians, finding what havoc the muskets of the whites were making in their ranks, gave up the assault and fell back, destroying all the provisions and driving off the horses and cattle, and finally disappeared.

This gallant defence was not overlooked by the government nor by his superior officers. In a letter to the governor of Kentucky, General Hopkins said: "The firm and almost unparalleled defence of Fort Harrison, by Captain Zachary Taylor, has raised for him a fabric of character not to be effaced by eulogy;" and the president conferred upon him the title of major by brevet. Major Taylor continued his services through the whole of the Indian war, uniformly distinguished for his skill and bravery. In 1814, he commanded an expedition against the British and Indians on Rock river (a branch of the Mississippi), in which he successfully executed the object of the enterprise—the erection of a fort to command the river.

On the close of the war, Congress reduced the army, and annulled all the promotions made during the war. This reducing Major Taylor to his former rank of captain, he threw up his commission, and retired to his farm. In the course of the year, however, he was restored to his rank of major, and re-entered the army. He was stationed at Green Bay, in command of which post he remained two years. He then returned to Kentucky, and passed a year with his family, after which he joined Colonel Russell at New Orleans. For several years afterward he remained in active duty in the south, building forts, opening military roads, etc. In April, 1819, he received the appointment of lieutenant-colonel, and in 1824, was engaged at Louisville in the recruiting service. In 1826, he was a member of a board of officers of the army and militia for the organization and improvement of the United States militia. The recommendations of the commission were not carried into effect; and shortly afterward Colonel Taylor resumed his services on the northwestern frontier. In 1832, having been appointed a colonel by General Jackson, he was actively engaged in the Blackhawk war; and after its termination was deputed to conduct Blackhawk himself and his fellow-prisoners to Jefferson barracks.

In 1836, Colonel Taylor was ordered to Florida, to serve against the Seminoles under Osceola. On the 25th of December, 1837, he came up with a large party of the Indians, posted on a hummock near Lake Okeechobee, where he attacked them with his force of volunteers and regulars. The contest was fierce and bitter, and lasted for over two hours. Three times the Indians rallied and returned to the conflict; but at length they were completely routed, and driven from the field. This important action virtually broke the strength of the Indians, and led to the peace which tardily followed. Colonel Taylor's conduct in this affair was especially commended by the president, and he was shortly afterward brevetted to the rank of brigadier-general, and intrusted with the command of the army in Florida. In 1840, he was relieved, at his own request, and stationed at Fort Jesup, in command of the first department of the army of the southwest. In 1845, he received orders to be in readiness

to defend our new territory of Texas, if necessary; and in November, 1845, he found himself at the head of four thousand men, at Corpus Christi, the position assigned him by the government.* Here he remained for over six months; and on the 8th of March, 1846, commenced his march through the wilderness of the Nueces, for the Rio Grande. Having taken possession of Point Isabel, he proceeded toward Matamoras, opposite which place he arrived on the 28th of March. After several threatening letters from the commander of the Mexican forces in Matamoras, and some manœuvring, the bombardment of the American intrenchments opposite Matamoras (which had been named Fort Brown) commenced on the 3d of May, General Taylor, with the principal portion of his army, being absent on an expedition to Point Isabel. On the 10th he returned, and relieved the garrison at Fort Brown.

General Taylor left Point Isabel on the 7th of May, with twenty-three hundred men, and the next day encountered the enemy drawn up in battle array, on a prairie near Palo Alto. At two o'clock the American forces advanced to the charge, and after five hours hard fighting the field was won, and the Mexicans retreated during the night. They were estimated by General Taylor at six thousand men. In the afternoon of the next day the enemy were again overtaken, having posted themselves in a ravine called Resaca de la Palma. They were again defeated, after a severe contest, and fled from the field, never stopping until those not killed or drowned in swimming were safely on the other side of the Rio Grande. On the 18th, General Taylor crossed the river, and took formal possession of Matamoras, Arista and his army having fled from the city. Here General Taylor remained with his army until September, meanwhile receiving from the president the appointment of major-general.

In the month of September the main body of the American forces advanced upon Monterey, which city capitulated on the 24th, after an obstinate resistance. On the 13th of November, the forces under Generals Taylor, Worth, and Wool, were concentrated at Saltillo, whence the former returned to Monterey, and on the 15th of December set out for Victoria, where he arrived on the 29th, finding himself in command of five thousand men. Shortly afterward came the requisitions from government stripping the southwestern army almost entirely of regulars, who were sent forward to join the forces under General Scott, and leaving General Taylor in command of about four thousand volunteers and five hundred regulars. In January, General Taylor established his headquarters at Monterey, where he learned that Santa Anna, with a splendidly-equipped army of twenty-one thousand men, had arrived at Encarnacion. Leaving fifteen hundred men at Monterey, as a garrison, Taylor at once advanced to meet the enemy; and on the 4th of February he encamped at Agua Nueva, where he remained until the 21st. He then—Santa Anna being within one day's march—fell back to Buena Vista, a strong mountain-pass eleven miles nearer to Saltillo. Here he prepared to await the approach of the enemy. The army under Santa Anna was admirably equipped, and was composed of the flower of the Mexican nation, while that of General Taylor was mostly raw recruits, and less than one fourth in numbers. Santa Anna knew the advantages that would be gained by success, and all the chances were in his favor. On the 23d, he summoned General Taylor to surrender at discretion, which he declined, and determined to risk the chances of battle. The details of the action we have not space to recount, but suffice it to say, the field was warmly contested throughout the day, and during the night the Mexicans retreated, leaving nearly two thousand dead and wounded, while the American loss was but one third this number. History has recorded few more splendid victories. It secured the whole frontier of the Rio Grande, struck terror and dismay into the heart of the Mexican nation, and virtually ended the war in that quarter.

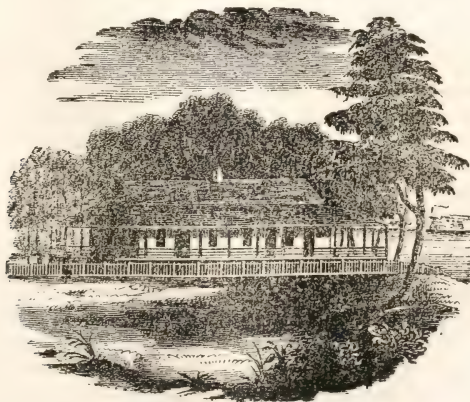
After a few skirmishes with guerilla parties, General Taylor fixed his camp

at Walnut Springs, where he remained inactive until November, when he obtained permission to return home. At New Orleans and other places on his route, he was received with the most enthusiastic demonstrations of respect.

The brilliant achievements of General Taylor during his campaigns in Mexico, so much attracted the admiration of the people of the United States, that a strong desire was early manifested by his fellow-citizens of various political parties, to place him in nomination as a candidate for president of the republic. Although his political opinions were known to coincide with those of the whig party, he had never taken an active part in politics. He was nominated for president by the whig national convention, on the 7th of June, 1848, and in November following, was elected to that office, receiving 163 electoral votes, against 127 votes for the democratic candidate General Cass.

On his journey from Baton Rouge to Washington, previous to his inauguration, and his subsequent visit through the northern states, he was received by the people with the strongest public demonstrations of enthusiasm and respect. General Taylor entered on the duties of his office March 5th, 1849, and met with conciliatory firmness the many exciting questions which deeply agitated the country, and distracted Congress during a long and arduous session. In the height of his popularity, and while he was generally relied on as being eminently fitted, from his position and character, to calm sectional dissension, and restore domestic peace to the Union, he was attacked with bilious fever, which, in five days, terminated his existence. His death occurred at the presidential mansion, July 9, 1850, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. Public obsequies were paid to his memory in all parts of the country.

General Taylor endeared himself to the American people to a degree which few public men ever attained. The cause of this lay in the goodness of his heart, and the exceeding sincerity of his character; in his practical common sense; in his plain easy manners; in a firmness that faced every danger and shunned no responsibility; and in a patriotism and sense of honor which admirably combined with the sturdy elements of his nature. Though not a statesman by genius or by education, he brought to the presidency a sound practical judgment, which enabled him almost intuitively to understand the questions that were brought before him, and to give as reliable opinions as those long versed in political affairs. Among the names of the great and good men whom America owns as sons, few will be more warmly cherished or shine with more enduring lustre than that of ZACHARY TAYLOR.



Residence of Zachary Taylor, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.



LORD BYRON.

RIGHT HON. GEORGE GORDON BYRON, grandson of Admiral Byron (who commanded in the West Indies during the French war of 1755-'63, and died in 1768), born January 22, 1788, was the sixth in descent from his ancestor, Sir John Byron, who received the estate of Newstead, in Lancaster county, England, as a grant from King Henry VIII. The notoriously licentious conduct of his father, Captain Byron, commonly called "mad Jack Byron," one of the handsomest men of his time, who had deserted his wife and squandered her fortune, made him an exile from England. He fled to France, to avoid his creditors, and died at Valenciennes in 1791, leaving his widow and son almost destitute. Previous to his elopement and marriage with Byron's mother (then Miss Gordon), he had seduced the beautiful duchess of Camarthen; and, though he was compelled afterward to marry her, he squandered her fortune, and treated her with such brutality, that she soon died of a broken heart. Lord Byron very wittily remarked of his father, that "he would have made a bad hero for Hannah More!"

Mrs. Byron having previous to this event retired to her native city of Aberdeen, in order to live within the limits of her scanty income, she placed her

son early in the grammar-school of that city; but when, in 1798, by the death of his great-uncle, without issue, he became possessed of the family title and estates, he was placed under the guardianship of Lord Carlisle, who sent him to Harrow school. His love of liberty and independence were prominent traits in his disposition, and they were seconded by a fixed aversion to control. In 1804, he went to Cambridge, and there became chiefly remarkable for his eccentric habits, and his defiance of the rules of discipline.

At the age of nineteen, young Byron quitted Cambridge, and took up his residence at the family-seat of Newstead abbey, where he employed himself chiefly in amusement, and especially in aquatic sports and swimming, of which he was very fond, notwithstanding his deformity of a club-foot. In 1807, while still at Newstead, he published his "Hours of Idleness." Although marked by some features of juvenility, this production gave undoubted indications of poetic genius; but it met with most severe and unmerited censure from the Edinburgh Review. The ridicule thus cast by the critic on the poet was not suffered to rest there; he exerted his powers, and amply revenged himself in the celebrated satire of "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers." The spirit of resentment is seldom very just; and it is singular enough that a number of the persons satirized in this poem, no long time after were numbered among the friends of the author.

About this period, Byron experienced a great disappointment in seeing Miss Mary Chaworth (the daughter and heiress of the gentleman who had fallen by the hand of his great-uncle), who had been the early object of his love, married to another and more mature suitor. His course of life was now marked by extravagance and dissipation, impairing both his health and fortune; and it was probably to extricate himself from the Circean snares by which he was surrounded, that he resolved, in 1809, on an excursion to the continent. He was accompanied by his friend and fellow-collegian, John Cam Hobhouse, Esq.; and after a stay of two years he returned, and gave to the world the first two cantos of "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage." This was quickly succeeded by "The Giaour," "The Bride of Abydos," "Lara," "The Corsair," &c.; and the noble bard became the poetical idol of the day.

In January, 1815, Lord Byron married Anna Isabella, only daughter of Sir Ralph Milbanke Noel; but the union was not productive of happiness, and they separated soon after the birth of a daughter. This rupture gave rise to many rumors redounding little to Lord Byron's credit, and he again went to the continent, with a determination not to return to his native country. He often changed his residence; and during his various travels, while he visited the most celebrated parts of the south of Europe, his admirers in England were indulged with the productions of his powerful and versatile muse: sometimes proudly soaring into the pure regions of taste, breathing noble sentiments and chivalric feelings; at other times, descending to impure voluptuousness, or grovelling in sheer vulgarity.

In 1823, the state of the Greeks awoke Lord Byron's noble feeling of independence; and with a disinterested generosity worthy of the example set by Lafayette in 1776, he resolved to devote his fortune, his pen, and his sword, to their cause. His energies, however, were no sooner called into action, than he was assailed by disease; and he expired of a fever, at Missolonghi, on the 19th of April, 1824, in the thirty-seventh year of his age, to the inexpressible sorrow of the Greeks, by whom he was venerated for his personal exertions and liberal pecuniary aid. His death is said to have been hastened by a too free use of the lancet on the part of his physician.

Few instances have occurred in which inconsistency appeared so glaring as in the various qualifications of this highly-gifted nobleman. With powers of reasoning beyond the faculties of most other men, he was capricious and un-

fixed; and with a poetic taste that approached the sublime, was sometimes mixed a reckless, unalloyed profligacy, evidently the offspring of sensuality, and the parent of immoral consequences in others. In proportion, therefore, as we admire the commanding talents and poetic eloquence of Byron, so are we compelled to deprecate the unholy purposes to which they were too often made subservient. "Prostituted genius is but splendid guilt."



House in which Lord Byron died at Missolonghi.

The above engraving represents the house in which Lord Byron died. It is from a sketch taken on the spot by a lady. The apartment in which he expired is at the top, on the left, distinguished by an awning and balcony in front of the window.

SIR ROBERT PEEL.

SIR ROBERT PEEL, the most distinguished English statesman of his age, was born February 5, 1788. Destined by his father for a political life, he was educated first at Harrow, and afterward at Oxford, at both of which places he distinguished himself by his patient diligence, his correct taste, and his scholarly achievements. At Oxford he took a first-class degree in both classics and mathematics. No sooner was this accomplished, than his father, in 1809, had him brought into parliament as member for Cashel, while he was little more than twenty-one years of age; and the house of commons became thenceforward the arena of his life. He had not sat long in it until he proved himself an able speaker, and a laborious and sagacious worker. This led to his speedily finding his way to office. In 1811 he was appointed under-secretary of state for the colonies, under the Percival administration. In 1812 he was made chief secretary for Ireland—an office which he held with much advantage to the country till 1818. In 1817 he was elected one of the members for



Portrait of Sir Robert Peel.

the university of Oxford. After remaining out of office for nearly four years—which, however, were signalized by his carrying through his famous currency measure, and many other useful acts—he in 1822 became secretary of state for the home department. Among many other useful measures identified with his name during this period of his career, may be mentioned his plan for the reform of the criminal code of England, which he brought forward and carried in 1826.

On the accession of George Canning to the premiership in 1827, Mr. Peel refused to take office under that distinguished statesman; but he returned in 1828 to the office of home secretary under the duke of Wellington, and held that post during the difficult times which preceded the dissolution of the tory government in 1830. Hitherto, his political career had borne the aspect of devoted adherence to toryism; but, on accepting office under the duke of Wellington, he entered upon a course in which the influence of a different set of principles came to be apparent; for he but feebly opposed the bill of Lord John Russell for the repeal of the test and corporation acts, and himself introduced and carried through, in 1829, the bill for the removal of the catholic disabilities, to which he had previously been opposed. The change in his opinions upon catholic emancipation having excited great dissatisfaction among his constituents, he resolved to give them an opportunity of recording their sentiments, by resigning his seat; but he was opposed and beaten by Sir Robert H. Inglis, finding his way back to parliament for the small borough of Westbury. On May 3, 1830, he succeeded his father in the baronetcy, and also as member for Tamworth, which he continued to represent till his death.

The accession of William IV., who was known to be attached to liberal opinions, together with the almost simultaneous outbreak of the French revolution, having given an irresistible impulse to the cause of reform in England, the Wellington administration resigned in November, 1830, after its defeat on the civil list; and Sir Robert Peel offered to the reform bill of the Grey administration a persevering and able, though not factious opposition. On the passing of that bill, however, he immediately accepted it as irrevocable, and set himself to reconstruct his party on the basis of the altered constitution of the house of commons.

The death of Earl Spencer, in 1834, having afforded the king a pretext for dismissing his whig ministers, Sir Robert Peel was summoned from Rome, whither he had gone with his family in the course of a continental tour, and requested to form an administration. He had now reached the summit of political power, and the same abilities which had displayed themselves while he was in subordinate offices, shone forth with increasing brilliancy now that he had the chief control of affairs. But his position in the house was not yet sufficiently strong to enable him to retain his place; and the government being beaten on more than one question, on the 8th of April, 1835, they resigned, and the whigs once more returned to office. In 1839 he was again prime minister for a still shorter period, the famous "Bedchamber plot," as it was called, having compelled him to relinquish the reins almost as soon as he had grasped them. In the meantime, however, circumstances were gradually ripening to render his accession to power inevitable. Justly or unjustly, a general impression had gone abroad unfavorable to the whig administration: it was accused of administrative incapacity; and, in the summer of 1841, Sir Robert Peel led on an attack which ended in the resignation of Lord Melbourne, and placed him once more at the head of affairs. Meanwhile, too, the conservative party had been busy in the registration courts; and, on the dissolution of parliament in the autumn of that year, a new election returned to the house a large majority prepared to support the Peel administration.

Sir Robert's power was now as real as his position was dignified. In 1842

he proposed one of the most extensive alterations in the tariff of the country that had ever been effected. Hundreds of imposts—many of them insignificant, but all of them vexatious—were swept away. The confidence of the protectionist party in their leader was grievously shaken, and their complaints of being duped by him were loud and clamorous. But in losing their confidence, he gained that of the opposite party, who began to look upon him as the man destined to realize all their hopes. In the autumn of 1845, the famine which threatened to sweep over the country roused a universal agitation, free from all party strife; and meetings were held in all the large towns, praying for the immediate opening of the ports, to relieve the people from their sufferings. The Peel cabinet split upon this question—Lord Stanley leading the opposition—and resigned in December. Lord John Russell attempted to form a government, but was prevented by personal disputes, and after some vain efforts he abandoned the task, and Sir Robert Peel was again reinstated.

Shortly after the opening of the session of 1846, Peel formally announced, to the surprise of all, the hope of thousands, and the rage and dismay of his party, his intention, not of modifying, but of entirely repealing the corn-laws. Instantly he became the object of the most unsparing invective, unceasing attack, and bitter reproach, from those who accused him of having deceived them. All this he bore with firmness and equanimity. He was convinced that no other plan would meet the wants of the country, and he persevered against an opposition strong, bitter, and powerful, but ultimately unavailing, his policy triumphing in both houses of parliament. The corn-laws were abolished in June, 1846, and free-trade proclaimed as the commercial policy of the country. Simultaneously with the passing of this measure, Sir Robert Peel resigned office, a coalition of whigs and protectionists having defeated him on the Irish coercion bill. From that period he gave a general support to the whigs, declaring that he had no wish to resume office. But, though destitute of office, he was not destitute of power; for never, perhaps, was his influence over the destinies of his country more felt than during the four years which followed his retirement. The last time he spoke in the house was on Friday, the 28th of June, 1850, on the discussion of the foreign policy of the government. On the afternoon of the following day, while riding up Constitution hill, his horse started and threw him over its head, falling heavily upon him. He was conveyed home, and medical attendance was instantly with him, but he grew gradually worse, and expired July 2, in the sixty-third year of his age, deeply regretted by all. A national monument was decreed to his memory.

Sir Robert Peel was a statesman of the highest order, a great financier, an excellent administrator, and an upright and honorable man. As a reformer of the criminal code, the introducer of an effective system of police, the founder of a system of monetary affairs, which has been lauded by the most eminent financiers, the restorer of civil equality to Christians of all denominations, to say nothing of his establishment of the principles of free trade, on which opinions differ, he was well entitled to the high honors which England rendered to his memory. But, besides his devotion to politics, Sir Robert found leisure to attend to the pursuits of literature, and the promotion of science and art. His own literary attainments were extensive; and his taste in the fine arts was attested by the magnificent gallery which he had collected. From the resources of his own wealth, he munificently encouraged the exertions of all those engaged in the pursuits of literature and art: as a dispenser of the public bounty, he caused it to flow liberally in their direction; and not a few of the families of men of genius were rescued from poverty by his prompt and judicious aid.



ADONIRAM JUDSON.

THIS distinguished pioneer in the American Foreign Missionary enterprise, was born August 9, 1788, at Malden, in Massachusetts, where his father was settled as pastor of the congregational church. At an early age, he completed his preparatory studies, and entered Brown university, whence he graduated in 1807. At this time he inclined to deism, but soon after his views of divine truth were changed, and he entered the theological seminary at Andover to prepare for the ministry. While engaged in his theological studies his attention was directed to the subject of foreign missions, and he determined to devote himself to that cause. Three of his fellow-students, Samuel Nott, Samuel J. Mills, and Samuel Newell, resolved to follow his example.

As there was no organization in this country for the support and direction of the work, he opened a correspondence with the London Missionary Society, received answers of encouragement, and was invited to visit England. Nevertheless, a memorial in behalf of himself, and three youthful coadjutors, was addressed to the Massachusetts Association, at Bradford, in June, 1810, the result of which was the formation of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. Under their direction he sailed for England, in the year 1811, in order to arrange a plan of co-operation between the two societies. He was captured by a French privateer, was imprisoned at Bayonne, was released on parole, obtained an imperial passport, and proceeded to London for the prosecution of his errand. No arrangement having been effected he re-

turned to America, and solicited an appointment from the board which met at Worcester, in September, 1811. The board was impelled to a decisive movement, and concluded to attempt a mission in Burmah.

On the 5th of February, 1812, Mr. Judson was married to Ann Hasseltine; on the 16th he was ordained at Salem, and on the 19th in company with his wife, together with Mr. and Mrs. Newell, embarked at that port in the brig *Caravan*. Their time was employed during the passage in studious preparation for their work, and while thus engaged, the change in Mr. Judson's views of baptism occurred which brought him into immediate connection with the baptist church. They arrived at Calcutta on the eighteenth of June, and accepted the hospitalities of the English missionaries at Serampore (the venerable Dr. Carey, Marshman, and Ward, the pioneers of Christian missions in India), with whom they entered into friendly deliberations as to the field which they should occupy. Their counsels, however, were suddenly embarrassed by their receiving from the local government an order directing them to return immediately to the United States. The East India Company had gradually acquired a vast territorial influence, and was now holding in its hand the political destinies of India. Intent only on the establishment of its power, it was jealous of the humblest effort to diffuse Christianity among the native population.

In these trying circumstances, the missionaries asked and obtained permission to go to the isle of France, an island in the Indian sea, which had lately fallen into the possession of England. Here they found their first field of labor in the eastern world. But though they were treated with great kindness by the inhabitants, who were chiefly descendants of old French families, and were urged to make it a permanent residence, they did not regard it as a field adapted to their wishes, as they desired to preach to pagans who had never heard of Christianity, and to occupy a centre, whence the light might radiate afar.

With these views Mr. and Mrs. Judson left the island, going first to Madras, and thence to Rangoon, the chief port of the Burman empire. Here, beyond the bounds of British India, the missionaries breathed more freely; under the favor of the viceroy, they devoted their whole energy to the acquisition of the Burman and Pali languages. In the course of the following year, intense exertion had impaired the health of each of them; but neither medical skill, nor rest, nor change of air and scene, imparted an influence so balmy and reviving as did the intelligence received from this country, that the churches had answered to their appeals, and that the Baptist General Convention for missionary purposes had been formed under auspicious circumstances. The arrival of Mr. Hough, with a printing-press (which was a present from Dr. Carey and the brethren at Serampore), gave a fresh impulse to the mind of Mr. Judson. It is difficult adequately to conceive of the profound delight with which the solitary preacher at Rangoon hailed the accession of a fellow-worker, and also of that mighty instrumentality of which he was wont to say, "Every pull of the press sends a ray of light through the empire of darkness."

From that time Mr. Judson pursued his daily work with renovated energy under the inspiration of brightening hopes. He had favor with the rulers and the people. A spirit of inquiry was spreading itself around him. Even the emperor, who had come into collision with the priesthood, had been heard to ask for light respecting "the new religion." Although no conversion had occurred, yet while the press was pouring forth editions of tracts, catechisms, and gospels, the heart of the missionary was elate with confidence. It was early in the year 1817, that he first heard from the lips of a Burman, and that, too an intelligent and respectable man, the acknowledgment of an eternal God. "I can not tell," said he, "how I felt at that moment."

On the 30th of April, 1819, a *zayat* for preaching and worship, was opened at Rangoon. Previous to the opening of the *zayat* two young men of Boston,

Messrs. Wheelock and Colman, had joined the mission. Within a single year, Mr. Wheelock fell the victim of a fatal disease. Within three years, Mr. Colman followed his friend to the tomb; but in the beginning of the year 1820, he was Dr. Judson's companion to the imperial court at Ava. A strong impression prevailed at Rangoon that a friendly visit to the emperor might incline him to favor the new religion and to protect the converts from persecution. The drifts of events during several years had fostered in the breasts of the missionaries the most sanguine hopes of this result. But when the visit had proved to be an entire failure, when the emperor had dashed to the ground with deep disdain the printed leaf which proclaimed an eternal God, and had bidden the splendid volumes which they offered away from him, their spirits sunk to a depth corresponding to their former elevation, and they were for a time paralyzed by the chill of disappointment. They imagined that no Burman would dare avow a religion which "the golden feet" had spurned, that further labor would be wasted, and that a more hopeful field must be sought. But the Burman disciples, instead of shrinking from the company of the missionaries, as it was supposed they would do, rallied around them, encouraged them, pointed out the brighter aspects of the enterprise, and besought them with tears and arguments not to forsake a post to which God himself had so evidently led them. The counsel of the Burman Christians prevailed, and their faith saved the station from abandonment.

The following year, a Christian physician, Dr. Jonathan Price, joined the mission. He visited Ava in his professional character, and was favorably received by the emperor. This event opened the way for Dr. Judson to go to Ava as a missionary, where he enjoyed for a brief period the privilege of preaching in the very gates of the imperial palace; but this momentary liberty was followed on the breaking out of war with the English, by that long and cruel imprisonment, the history of which, as delineated by the pen of Mrs. Judson, has thrilled so many hearts. Few have been called, in modern times, to endure such severe and long-protracted suffering as weighed upon this devoted pair during those weary months; and when rescued from the ruthless despotism by which they were tortured, and quietly settled at Amherst, under British protection, their union, the more tender for the fiery trial which had held them bound in the furnace, was broken by the death of Mrs. Judson, under circumstances that added intensity to the sorrows of such a bereavement.

During several succeeding years Dr. Judson was busily engaged at Amherst and Maulmain in the work of translation, in the revision of the Burman Scriptures, in the preparation of a Burman-English dictionary, and in public teachings at the zayat. Eight years after he had buried the wife of his youth, Dr. Judson became united in marriage to Mrs. Sarah Boardman, widow of the Rev. George Dana Boardman, who had fallen by the hand of death four years before, while in the prime of manhood and in the midst of his usefulness. This union was in all respects a happy one. The qualities of her mind and heart, her thorough education, her congenial tastes, her aptness to teach, her elegant Burmese scholarship, the strength of her domestic affections, and withal, her love to the missionary work, well fitted her to be the companion and the wife of one whom she honored as "first among the best of Christians and of men." In the discharge of daily duties, in the endurance of trials, in literary studies, in counsel and in action, they were mutual helpers, and for a series of years enjoyed a degree of happiness far beyond what their peculiar circumstances might have furnished reason to anticipate. But in the year 1845, Mrs. Judson's health became impaired; a voyage beyond the tropics was ordered by the physicians, and after a painful deliberation, her husband resolved to accompany her to her native land.

They had not been long at sea before every hope of her recovery was blasted

and he recoiled from the prospect before him of committing her remains to an ocean grave. But he was spared that trial. Mrs. Judson died while the vessel was lying at the isle of St. Helena, where a large circle of Christian friends followed her to the tomb, and sought in every way which sympathy could suggest to soothe the heart of the bereaved missionary.

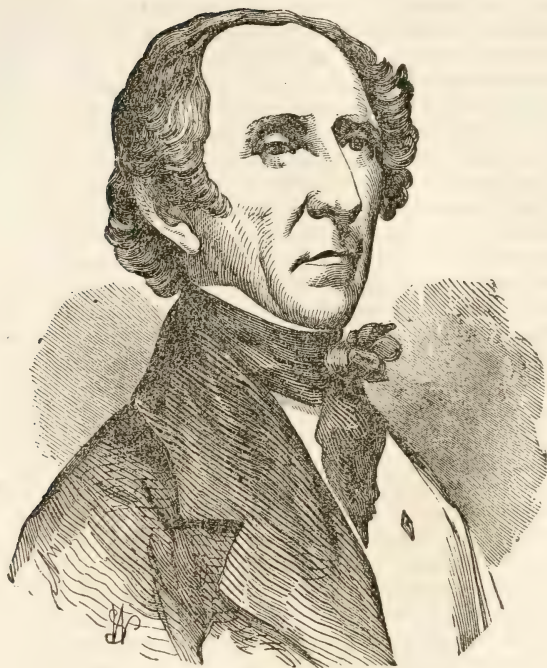
Dr. Judson arrived in Boston, October 15, 1845, and during his stay in this country, he evinced a fine susceptibility of deriving enjoyment from everything around him. From reminiscences of the past, from scenes of nature, from social intercourse, from the study of men, manners, customs, and society, he drew incentives to thought and subjects of conversation. His power of observation was quick and comprehensive, and nothing seemed to be too great or too minute to minister to his mental activity and his happiness. It was evident to those who were favored with the opportunity of associating with him, that his long delay to revisit the home of his youth had not arisen from anything like coldness or stoicism in his nature, but simply from devotion to his great object. Nothing here, however, could wean his affections from the churches of Burmah, and he soon became impatient to return to the sphere of his daily toils. He desired to make every visit, every event, subservient to his life-work. While sojourning in Philadelphia, he became favorably impressed with the character of Miss Emily Chubbuck, of Utica, New York, the gifted lady known in the literary world under the pseudonym of "Fanny Forester," whose graceful pen he wished to employ in writing a memoir of his deceased wife, and the result was a proposal of marriage, which she considerably accepted.

After Dr. Judson's return to Burmah, he resumed the labors which had been interrupted by his absence, and pursued them during the three following years, until his health became entirely broken down. A change of climate was necessary, and he resolved to embark for the island of Bourbon. It was impracticable for Mrs. Judson to accompany him, and to her the pang of parting was rendered especially painful by the fear that he would never return. The native Christians of Maulmain were all opposed to his departure, expressing the gloomy presentiment that he would be buried in the sea, and also the wish that his grave might be made where they could visit it. In those fears Dr. Judson did not participate, but in the end they were all realized. He regarded himself as being constitutionally tenacious of life, and longed to inhale the ocean air, believing that he might yet be restored to complete his literary tasks, and then to devote succeeding years to the ministration of the gospel.

But it was ordained otherwise. Soon after the vessel had set sail, and while in sight of the Tenasserim coast, there was a relief from pain, and a slight resuscitation which threw a gleam of light over the prospect of recovery. But this was only like a calm in which, sometimes, the devastating storm gathers its energies. Racking pangs followed in quick succession. A period of more than forty hours succeeded replete with mortal agonies. It was followed by a placid calm, in which, on the 12th of April, 1850, without a sigh or sign of suffering, he expired. The manner of his death was in keeping with the sublime spirit and style of his life, and sheds a lustre over the retrospect of his whole career—just as the setting sun flings back its splendors over the eastern sky, gilding every cloud and mountain height with a mild, celestial glory.

Dr. Judson was a man of high and resolute courage, of remarkable self-reliance, of more than common mental ability, and of devotion to the performance of his duty, almost without a parallel in modern times. He had all the elements of a hero in his composition; and whoever would look for a rare specimen of a life consecrated to noble, ideal aims, inspired with an elevated and almost romantic self-devotion, and daily exercising a valiant energy more difficult of attainment than that which animates the soldier amid the smoke of battle, must contemplate the eventful history of this lion-hearted missionary of Burmah.

JOHN TYLER.



JOHN TYLER.

JOHN TYLER, the tenth president of the United States, was born on the 29th of March, 1790, in Charles City county, Virginia. While a mere child, he was noted for his fondness for books, and at the age of twelve years he entered William and Mary college. He graduated at the age of seventeen years, with distinguished honor, and at once applied himself to the study of law, at first with his father (who was a leading patriot in the Revolution, and at one time governor of Virginia), and afterward with Edmund Randolph. At nineteen he was admitted to the bar, without any inquiry having been made respecting his age; and so successful were his efforts, that within three months he was retained in almost every case brought before the court of his native county.

At the age of twenty-one years, young Tyler was elected a member of the Virginia legislature, and continued as such for five years. He was attached to the democratic party, and became exceedingly popular in his state as an orator and statesman. He supported the administration during the war with Great Britain, and in 1816 he was elected to Congress. He served nearly two terms, but toward the close of the latter, in 1821, ill health compelled him to resign his station, and he retired to his farm in Charles City county, carrying with him the profound respect of all parties.

Mr. Tyler did not long remain in private life. In 1823, he was again elected a member of the Virginia legislature, where he took the lead in all matters of public utility; and many of the finest works of internal improvement in that state are the result of his untiring labors.

In 1825, Mr. Tyler was elected governor of Virginia by the legislature. He

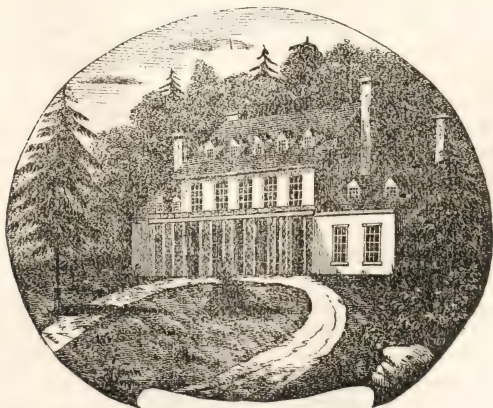
was re-elected the following year, but resigned the office, in consequence of being elected to succeed John Randolph in the United States senate. He took his seat in that body in December, 1827. He voted against the tariff-bill of 1828, and was a firm supporter of General Jackson on his accession to the presidency, but ever pursuing an independent and consistent course. He sometimes differed with the president, and always honestly and frankly avowed his opinions. During the session of 1831-'2, he opposed the rechartering of the United States bank, and voted against it as an unconstitutional measure. He also voted against the tariff-bill of 1832; but, in the course of a speech in the senate, he inculcated doctrines of concession, upon which Mr. Clay, in 1833, predicated his famous compromise-act, which Mr. Tyler supported.

In 1833, he was re-elected to the senate for six years. Siding with the nullifiers, he withdrew his support from President Jackson; and he also opposed the removal of the government deposits from the United States bank. His course in the senate separated him from the president's friends in Virginia, who subsequently supported Mr. Van Buren.

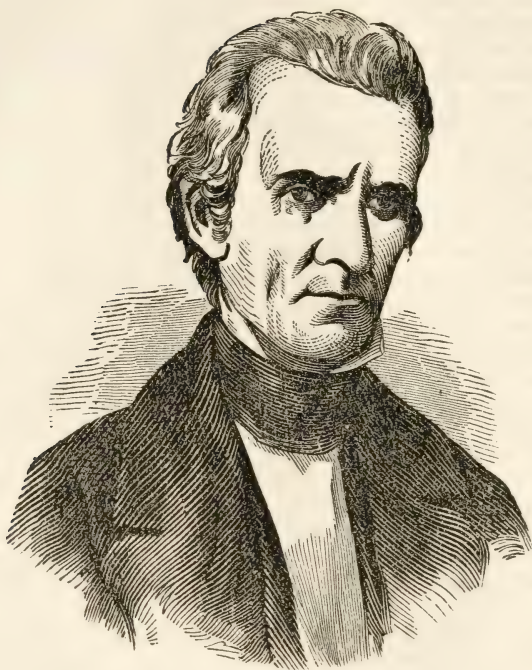
In 1836, the legislature of Virginia instructed the senators from that state to vote for expunging from the journals of the senate the resolution of Mr. Clay, censuring the president. As Mr. Tyler approved of the resolution, he could not obey instructions, and, true to his avowed principles, he resigned his seat.

In the spring of 1838, the whigs of James City county elected Mr. Tyler a member of the Virginia legislature. In 1839, he was elected a member of the whig convention that met at Harrisburg to nominate a candidate for president of the United States. He was chosen vice-president of the convention, and warmly supported Mr. Clay for the nomination. General Harrison was nominated for president, and Mr. Tyler for vice-president, and in 1840 they were both elected.

President Harrison died in one month after entering upon the duties of his office, and Mr. Tyler succeeded him in accordance with the provisions of the constitution. Several measures of the whig party were passed at the extra and subsequent session; but Mr. Tyler refused to co-operate with the party which elected him, and vetoed them. His cabinet (with the exception of Mr. Webster) resigned; and he afterward acted mainly with the democratic party. His administration, however, was conducted with ability, and distinguished for the settlement of the long-disputed northeastern boundary question, and the annexation of Texas. On the inauguration of Mr. Polk, in 1845, he retired to his estate in Williamsburg, Virginia, where he still resides.



Residence of John Tyler, Williamsburg, Va.



JAMES KNOX POLK.

JAMES KNOX POLK, the eleventh president of the United States, was born in Mecklenberg county, North Carolina, on the 2d of November, 1795. In the autumn of 1806, his father, with a wife and ten children, removed to Tennessee, upon the Duck river, which region was then a wilderness. By application and perseverance, James acquired a good English education, and at the age of seventeen he was placed in a mercantile house. The pursuit did not accord with his taste, and he prevailed upon his father to allow him to prepare for a collegiate course, with a view to the acquirement of the profession of the law. At the age of twenty, he entered the university of North Carolina. There he was a distinguished pupil. At each semi-annual examination he took the first honors, and he graduated, in 1818, with the reputation of being the best scholar in mathematics and the classics in the institution.

He returned to Tennessee, on leaving the university, with greatly impaired health (the result of too close application to study), and commenced the study of law in the office of the late Felix Grundy. At the close of 1820 he was admitted to the bar, and commenced his professional career in the county of Maury. He soon took the lead in his profession, and his plain, common sense and courteous address gained him to a large circle of warm friends.

In 1823 he left his profession for politics, and was elected to the Tennessee legislature. He was the early political supporter and personal friend of General Jackson, and was one of those who first suggested him for the presidency. In August, 1825, Mr. Polk was elected to Congress, where he at once declared

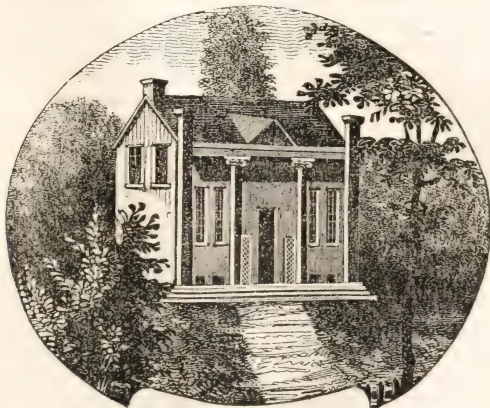
himself as a democratic republican of the strictest sect—a state-rights man and a strict constructionist, opposed to protective tariffs, United States banks, internal improvement, restriction of slavery, &c. His first speech in Congress was in favor of amending the constitution so as to prevent the election of president and vice-president by the house, in any event. He also warmly and ably opposed the Panama mission, and introduced a series of resolutions embodying the principle that it is the duty of the house of representatives, when called upon for appropriations for foreign missions, to inquire into the expediency and necessity of those missions. Through the whole of his congressional career, he warmly opposed the administration of Mr. Adams, and as warmly supported that of General Jackson. At the session of Congress subsequent to the removal of the deposits by General Jackson, Mr. Polk, as chairman of the committee of ways and means, exerted himself successfully to carry through the resolutions sustaining and approving the president's course.

In December, 1835, Mr. Polk was elected speaker of the house of representatives, a post which he filled with dignity and ability for five successive sessions. Throughout the whole of his political career, Mr. Polk was distinguished for his unwavering attachment to his party; and in 1835, when the whole Tennessee delegation in the house of representatives determined to support Judge White for the presidency, he remained firm to the democratic party and gave his support to Mr. Van Buren.

In 1839, after serving fourteen years in Congress, Mr. Polk declined a re-election, and was nominated as the democratic candidate for governor of Tennessee, and was elected. Two years afterward he was a candidate for re-election, but was defeated, and again in 1843 with a similar result.

Mr. Polk remained in private life until the 29th of May, 1844, when he received the nomination of the democratic national convention for president, to which office he was elected the following fall, and was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1845. The prominent measures of his administration were the Mexican war, the settlement of the Oregon boundary question, the establishment of the independent treasury, and the reduction of the tariff.

On the accession of Gen. Taylor to the presidential chair in 1849, Mr. Polk retired to his residence at Nashville, Tennessee, where, in June following, he was attacked with the chronic diarrhœa, which terminated his life on the 15th of that month, in the fifty-fourth year of his age. Mr. Polk, by his amiability of character and the purity of his morals, secured the esteem of all that knew him in private life, and his public career was marked by amenities of manners that commanded the respect of his political opponents.



Residence of James K. Polk, Nashville, Tenn.



MILLARD FILLMORE.

MILLARD FILLMORE, the thirteenth president of the United States, was born January 7, 1800, at Summer Hill, Cayuga county, in the state of New York. His father, Nathaniel Fillmore, who had emigrated from Vermont in 1771, and followed the occupation of a farmer, lost his property in 1802, by the title being imperfect, and removed to Niles in the same county, where he continued to reside until 1819, when he changed his residence to Erie county. Owing to the limited circumstances of his father, Millard's education was necessarily of the most imperfect kind, and at the age of fourteen he was sent to Livingston county, at that time a wild region, to learn the clothier's trade; and about four months later he was apprenticed to a wool-carder, in the town in which his father lived. During the four years that he worked at his trade, he availed himself of every opportunity of improving his mind, and supplying the defects of his early education. At the age of nineteen he made the acquaintance of the late Judge Wood, of Cayuga county, a man of wealth and eminence in his profession, who detected in the humble apprentice, talents which would qualify him for a higher station. He accordingly offered to receive him into his office, and to defray his expenses during the time of his studies. Mr. Fillmore accepted the proposal; but that he might not incur too large a debt to his benefactor, he devoted a portion of his time to teaching school.

In 1821, he removed to Erie county, and pursued his legal studies in the city of Buffalo, supporting himself by teaching. Two years later, he was admitted to the common pleas, and commenced the practice of the law at Aurora, in the same county. In 1827 he was admitted as an attorney, and in 1829 as a counsellor in the supreme court, and in the following year he removed to Buffalo, where he entered into partnership with an elder member of the bar.

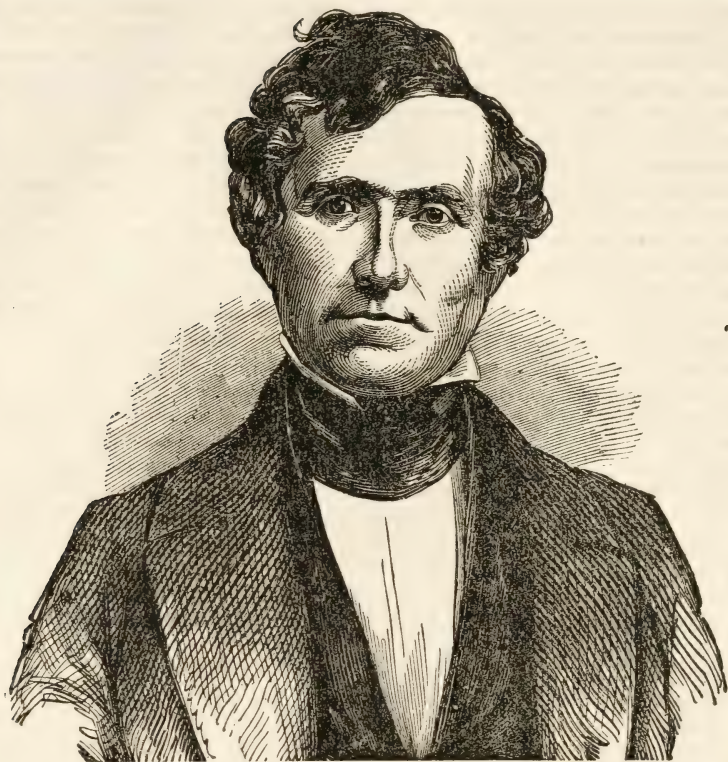
In 1826 he was married to Abigail, daughter of the Rev. Lemuel Powers, by whom he has a son and daughter. She died at Washington, March 30, 1853.

Mr. Fillmore's political life commenced with his election to the state assembly, in which body he took his seat in 1829, as a member from the county of Erie, to which office he was re-elected the two following years. Being a member of the whig party, which was at that time in the minority, he had little opportunity to distinguish himself; but he took a prominent part in assisting to abolish imprisonment for debt in the state. In 1832, he was elected to Congress, and took his seat the year after. In 1835, at the close of his term of office, he resumed the practice of the law, until he once more consented to be a candidate for Congress, and took his seat again in 1837. During this session he took a more prominent part in the business of the house than during his former term, and he was assigned a place on one of the most important committees—that on elections, having charge of the famous New Jersey case. He was successively re-elected to the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh Congresses, in the latter of which, he was chairman of the committee of ways and means, and in both of them distinguished himself as a man of talents and great business capacity. At the close of the first session of the twenty-seventh Congress, he announced his intention not to be a candidate for re-election, returned to Buffalo and again devoted himself to the duties of his profession.

In 1844, Mr. Fillmore was prevailed upon to accept the whig nomination for governor of the state of New York, but he shared in the general defeat of his party. In 1847, however, he was elected to the office of comptroller of the state, by an exceedingly large majority. In 1848, he was nominated by the whigs as their candidate for vice-president, and elected to that office in the fall of the same year. In March, 1849, he resigned his office of comptroller, to assume the duties of his new position; and in the discharge of its varied and delicate trusts, he acquitted himself with courtesy, dignity, and ability, until the death of General Taylor, in July, 1850, elevated him to the presidential chair. Congress at this time was engaged in an animated struggle on questions involving the subject of slavery, and the country was in a high state of excitement. Mr. Fillmore selected a new cabinet, with Daniel Webster at its head, and, from an earnest desire to conciliate the warring sections, and restore harmony to the Union, gave the influence of the administration in favor of the compromise measures which had been reported in the senate: they were finally passed in September of the same year. The election of his successor occurred in 1852, and on March 4, 1853, he resigned the office which he had filled with distinguished ability into the hands of Franklin Pierce.



Residence of Millard Fillmore, Buffalo, N. Y.



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

FRANKLIN PIERCE, the fourteenth president of the United States, was born at Hillsborough, in the state of New Hampshire, Nov. 23, 1804. His father, Benjamin Pierce, held the rank of brigade-major in the American army during the Revolutionary war, and subsequently several political offices besides that of governor of New Hampshire in 1827. Having completed a preparatory course of studies, Franklin entered Bowdoin college at the age of sixteen years, and on his graduation chose the law for a profession. He first became a student of Judge Woodbury, at Portsmouth, thence he entered the law school of Judge Howe at Northampton, and passed to the office of Judge Porter at Amherst, thus enjoying the best opportunities of qualifying himself for his profession.

In 1827, Mr. Pierce, being admitted to the bar, commenced the practice of law in his native town, and before the end of two years he was chosen a representative in the state legislature. He served in that body four years, the two latter of which were in the office of speaker, discharging the duties with courtesy and ability, and winning the esteem of the members. In 1833, he was elected to Congress, and continued a member of the house of representatives four years. He was a firm supporter of General Jackson and his measures, which were at that time causing much excitement throughout the country. In 1837 he was elected a member of the United States senate, to fill a vacancy for four years. and in 1841, was re-elected, but after serving one session of this term he resigned his seat, to devote himself wholly to his profession. Settling in Concord, N. H., he resumed his practice, with a firm resolution to withdraw for the future from public life. Adhering to that resolution, he declined to be a candi

date for governor of the state or United States senator, and also refused the offices of attorney-general and secretary of war, tendered him by President Polk.

On the breaking out of the Mexican war, however, Mr. Pierce, enrolled himself as a private soldier in the New England regiment, but President Polk sent him a colonel's commission, and subsequently raised him to the rank of brigadier-general in March, 1847. His command consisted of 2,500 men, with whom he landed at Vera Cruz, the 28th of June. He was engaged in several of the battles which were fought between Vera Cruz and the city of Mexico, and made himself highly popular with the men under his command. On the restoration of peace between the two countries, he resigned his commission, and returned home, to resume his legal practice.

The democratic convention met at Baltimore June 1, 1852, to nominate a candidate for president; after more than forty ballottings for the selection among the prominent candidates, the name of Franklin Pierce was proposed, and on the forty-ninth ballot he was chosen as their standard-bearer. The election occurred in November, and resulted in his success by an overwhelming majority over his competitor, General Scott, receiving 252 out of 295 electoral votes, or those of all the states but four. He entered on the duties of his high office as president of the United States, March 4, 1853.

In 1824, Mr. Pierce was married to Miss Jane Means, daughter of Rev. Dr. Appleton, formerly president of Bowdoin college, by whom he had a son, whose sudden death by a railroad accident in Jan., 1853, was a severe bereavement to his father almost at the moment of his political triumph.

FELIX MENDELSSOHN-BARTHOLDY.

FELIX MENDELSSOHN-BARTHOLDY, the greatest musical composer of the nineteenth century, was born at Berlin, Prussia, February 3, 1809. His grandfather, Monsieur Mendelssohn, was a celebrated Jewish philosopher, commonly called the "Socrates of the Jews." His father was a wealthy banker, more favored with the gifts of fortune than of genius; and it is related of him that he was in the habit of saying: "When I was a boy, people used to call me the son and now they call me the father, of the great Mendelssohn." The precocity of his son's musical talent surpassed even that of Mozart. Before his eighth year, his accurate ear, his strong memory, and, above all, his incredible facility in playing music at sight, excited the wonder of his teachers—Zelter and Berger—and gave room to hope that a successor of Mozart was at hand.

In his ninth year, he performed at a public concert in Berlin, to the admiration of his audience: the following year, the boy-artist accompanied his parents to Paris; and when he was twelve years old, he composed his pianoforte quartette in C minor, which is still found to be full of interest and originality. His first compositions were published in 1824. These were soon followed by many others, among which was an opera, called "The Marriage of Gamacho," which, though betraying inexperience, has much character and many beauties. In 1827 he made a musical tour through Italy, France, and England; and conducted, at the philharmonic concert in London, his first symphony, and his overture to the "Midsummer Night's Dream," which produced an electrical effect.

Having now resolved to devote himself exclusively to the artist life, he was appointed, in 1833, to the directorship of the concerts and theatre of Dusseldorf, where, in 1835, he produced his great oratorio of "Paulus;" and ten years afterward he accepted of the same office at Leipsic, whither young men of talent flocked from all parts of Europe, as well to seek the acquaintance of the leading professor of the day, as to submit their own productions to his judgment. He afterward accepted the musical directorship at Berlin, at the



earnest entreaty of the king of Prussia, but resigned it in a short time, and returned to his favorite Leipsic, where he resided till his death, acting as conductor of the concerts, and along with his friend Moscheles, director of the conservatory of music. During these labors he repeatedly visited England, to conduct great musical festivals and concerts.

In 1847, his health began to fail, his strength being exhausted by fatigue and excitement; and the sudden death of a favorite sister at this period inflicted upon his nervous system a blow, from which it never fully recovered. After trying to recruit his health and spirits amid the scenery of the Alps, he returned to his home apparently in better health; but it again gave way, and on the 8th of November, 1847, the great master and noble artist ceased to breathe, in the prime of life, being less than thirty-nine years of age.

As a composer, Mendelssohn travelled over a wide field of art. But his genius, as it reached maturity, became more and more profound and lofty; and his two oratorios, "Paulus" and "Elijah," will form his most enduring monuments. His symphonies are ranked only second to those of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven. The dramatic character of his genius is evinced, not only by his youthful opera before mentioned, but by his delicious music to the "Midsummer-Night's Dream," by his "First Walpurgis Night," and the powerful choruses for "Antigone," "Athalia," and "Ædipus." The few songs he wrote, and more especially the "Lieder ohne Worte," show that, as a graceful and expressive melodist, he has no superior. Mendelssohn was singularly happy in every character and relation of life. Born to affluence and ease, he pursued art with an ardor and activity scarcely ever paralleled; and his artist life was an unbroken career of triumph. As a man, he was loved and esteemed by all; and it is not too much to say, that he had not an enemy in the world.

EMPEROR NICHOLAS I.

NICHOLAS PAULOVITCH, the late emperor of Russia, was the third son of Paul I., by his second wife Maria Feodorowna, daughter of the duke of Würtemberg. He was born at St. Petersburg, on the 7th of July (June 25, Russian style), 1796. His early instruction was conducted by his mother, who was an intelligent and devoted woman, and exerted a great influence on all the members of the imperial family. The Princess de Lieven, the celebrated linguist Frederic Adelung, the eminent political economist Storch, and General Emendorf, were charged with the duty of initiating him into the knowledge of languages, literature, political economy, military art, and fortifications. From his childhood he showed less inclination for study than for military affairs, and his teachers conceived no very high idea of his capacity. He made sufficient progress in music to compose several military marches of respectable quality.

Nicholas was a hard, dry, ungenial person from his youth. His brother Alexander's court was gay and licentious; but the iron Nicholas kept himself free from its seductions, and passed his time in comparative retirement, laying the foundation of that physical and moral vigor which subsequent events exhibited in his character. Amorous intrigue, the favorite pastime of princes, had less charms for him than the details of military discipline. His studies and his sports were alike of a martial nature; and before he had reached maturity, he had acquired in the army the character of a martinet, and had become unpopular with the soldiers. During the reign of his brother he kept himself aloof from state affairs, and had no part in the gigantic struggle, consequent on the invasion of Russia by Napoleon. After the peace in 1815, he spent three years in making the tour of the Russian provinces, visiting the principal battle-fields where the Russians had been engaged, and travelling and residing in France, Germany, Italy, and England.

In his twenty-first year he was married to Charlotte, daughter of Frederic William III. of Prussia and sister of the present king of that country, a princess two years his junior, not unlike him in majesty of form and strength of purpose. The marriage ceremony was performed in St. Petersburg, with the barbaric pomp usual in royal ceremonies. The lady had been bred a Protestant, but found no difficulty in renouncing the religion of her fathers, and cleaving unto that of her husband; and she was received with another pompous ceremonial into the Greek church. The union was said to be one of love on both sides, and all writers agree that Nicholas was scrupulously faithful to his marriage-vows, though the first of his line to whom that praise can be awarded. The wedded pair, unsuspecting the high destiny to which events would one day summon them, lived for some years in retirement from court, in the enjoyment of domestic happiness.*

The unexpected call for Prince Nicholas to assume the imperial crown

* Nicholas left at his death his wife, four sons, and two daughters, viz.: The Empress ALEXANDRA FEODOROWNA (formerly called Frederica Louisa Charlotte Wilhelmina) born July 13, 1798, who has been an invalid for some years.—1. ALEXANDER II. Nicolaivitch Cesarovitch, the present emperor; born April 29, 1818; married, April 28, 1841, to Maria Alexandrovna, the present empress (formerly Maximilienne Wilhelmina Augusta Sophia Maria), born May 8, 1824, daughter of the late Louis II., grand-duke of Hesse. Their children are, Nicholas Alexandrovitch, the present crown-prince, born Sept. 20, 1843; Vladimir Alexandrovitch, born April 22, 1847; Alexis Alexandrovitch, born Jan. 14, 1850.—2. MARIA Nicolaievna, born Aug. 8, 1819; married in 1839 to Maximilian Beauharnois, duke of Leuchtenberg, prince of Eichstedt, and grandson of the empress Josephine; she became a widow in 1852.—3. OLGA Nicolaivna, born Sept. 11, 1822; married to Charles, prince-royal of Wurtemberg, in 1846.—4. CONSTANTINE Nicolaivitch, born Sept. 21, 1827; married in 1848 to Alexandra Josefovna, daughter of Joseph, duke of Saxe-Altenburg.—5. NICHOLAS Nicolaivitch, born Aug. 8, 1831.—6. MICHAEL Nicolaivitch, born Oct. 25, 1832. ALEXANDRA, the third daughter of Nicholas, was born in 1825, married in 1844, and died the same year.



Nicholas I., Emperor of Russia.

occurred under the following circumstances. In the month of November, 1825, news reached the palace of Nicholas, near St. Petersburg, that his brother the Emperor was sick at Taganrog, in one of the southern provinces of the empire. A few days afterward he received intelligence that he was out of danger; and on the following morning, Nicholas, with all his family, was in the chapel of the palace, returning thanks for the emperor's convalescence. It was while thus engaged that a messenger entered the chapel, and whispered to Nicholas that the emperor had ceased to live. He hastened to the apartment of the empress, but the particulars of the interview never transpired. He then proceeded to the state council, and proposed to take at once the oaths of allegiance to his brother, Constantine.* But the council replied that a sealed packet had been left to their care by the late emperor, to be opened after his death: the seals were broken, and the packet found to contain three important documents: first, the formal renunciation of Constantine's claim to the succession, in favor of Nicholas; second, a letter from the emperor to Constantine, assenting to the arrangement; third, an imperial decree constituting Nicholas heir to the throne. The council immediately offered to swear allegiance to Nicholas, but he refused absolutely to accept the throne until Constantine had again formally renounced it. For fourteen days the empire was kept in suspense, during which period all the offices of government were performed in the name of the emperor Constantine. At length arrived the required document, and Nicholas, on the 24th of December, 1825, ascended the throne, as "Autocrat of all the Russias," "King of Poland," and "Grand Prince of Finland."

Two days after a vast conspiracy to overturn the government broke out. A number of military officers belonging to the nobility, who had resided in Germany and France, during the wars against Napoleon, were dissatisfied with the despotic government established in their own country. They had organized secret societies, similar to the *Tugendbund* formed by the Germans, and awaited the favorable moment to proclaim a representative government. They spread in the army false rumors that Nicholas was a usurper, that the grand-duke Constantine claimed the throne, and that he was marching with Polish battalions upon St. Petersburg; and, by these misrepresentations, they induced the soldiers to revolt.

The situation was extremely critical. Several of the regiments cried, "Live Constantine!" They had massacred two generals, seriously insulted the governor of the capital, and disdainfully repelled the Russian archbishop who came to urge them to obedience. Already they had advanced turbulently to the imperial palace, and the populace joined the rebels, besides some men of the liberal professions who desired a change in the form of the government. If Nicholas had lingered a few hours in inaction, all would have been lost for him.

It was then that he displayed rare coolness, energy, and intrepidity. Accompanied by some hundreds of guards devoted to his cause, he mounted his horse, went to the place of revolt in the great square of the Admiralty, and, with a haughty bearing, called out to the rebels: "Return to your ranks!—obey!—Down upon your knees!" Quailing before the imperial order, and awed by the sacred character attributed in Russia to the emperor's person,

* Next to Alexander, the grand-duke Constantine, then residing at Warsaw as viceroy of Poland, had a right to the imperial throne. But Constantine was a strange, half barbarous man. He was first married to a princess of the house of Saxe-Coburg, and aunt to Prince Albert of England; but such was his brutality toward her, that she was separated from him. Afterward he conceived a passion for the daughter of a simple Polish gentleman, and to obtain a divorce from his former wife so as to enable him to form a matrimonial union with the latter he had secretly signed a paper renouncing the throne of Russia. Constantine received the intelligence of the death of his brother Alexander several days before it reached St. Petersburg. But faithful to his word, as soon as he was informed that his brother declined to accept the crown under the circumstances, he immediately renewed his renunciation of the sovereign dignity, and declared that he acknowledged only Nicholas as emperor of all the Russias. Constantine continued as the viceroy of Poland until the rebellion, and died in 1831.

most of the soldiers kneeled before their sovereign, and, in token of submission, grounded their arms. Those who persisted in resistance were shot down by cannon. The punishments inflicted upon the conspirators were frightful. Many of them underwent the penalty of death. Others, to the number of several hundreds, were exiled to the snows and mines of Siberia.

He immediately adopted the most stringent measures for the consolidation of the imperial authority. Rejecting the plan of his predecessor which aimed at the prosperity of the state by the cultivation and improvement of the people, he adopted the ancient system of the czars, founded on military discipline and implicit obedience. He addressed himself energetically to the correction of abuses in the public administration, visiting delinquent agents with exemplary punishment, and partially changing the practical organization of the government. Among his great enterprises for the more effective dispensation of justice, was his reform of the legal code, which gigantic labor, commenced in 1827, was brought to a close in 1846.

The foreign policy of Nicholas, during the first years of his reign, was chiefly directed to Asia. Soon after he ascended the throne a war broke out with Persia, in consequence of disputes arising from the non-settlement of certain boundaries between Russia and that power, which resulted in successes for the former, and terminated in 1828, by the shah suing for peace, and giving up an extensive territory on the southwestern shores of the Caspian sea, with some provinces on the Caucasus, and paying the expenses of the war.

Soon after, Nicholas declared war against Turkey, which resulted in the continuous success of his arms. The Russians passed the Pruth with a large army, occupied the provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia, crossed the Danube under the supervision of the emperor in person, besieged and captured Varna, Silistria, and other important points, forced the passage of the Balkans, caused Adrianople to capitulate, extended the army from the Euxine to the Mediterranean, across the entire breadth of Turkey, and advanced to within eighty miles of Constantinople. Other successes were gained in Asia Minor. The sultan became alarmed for his capitol, and the treaty of Adrianople was signed in the fall of 1829, securing to Nicholas the free commerce of the Danube, and of the Black and Mediterranean seas, with other political advantages of incalculable value.

While Persia was thus humbled beneath his power, and Turkey was, in fact, completely subjugated, the political movements of 1830 began in the west of Europe, which essentially affected his relations to the European powers, and produced the national rising of Poland in the fall of that year, which could only be suppressed by prompt military action, sustained by the combined resources of the imperial government. Nicholas avenged the insurrection by destroying the nationality of Poland. He issued an imperial ukase, March 17, 1832, abolishing the kingdom of Poland and its constitution, and incorporating it with Russia as a province. Combined with the political and military operations of the czar were his endeavors to reduce all forms of religion in his empire to the Greek church, of which he was the acknowledged head.

In 1833 the sultan of Turkey obtained the assistance of Nicholas against the pacha of Egypt, who had taken possession of Syria and threatened Constantinople. In return for his services, a secret treaty was made, which allied Turkey to Russia, and closed the Dardanelles against any power with whom Russia might be at war. This treaty was abrogated in 1841 when a general treaty of peace was signed by all the leading European powers.

In 1844 Nicholas visited England, where he was the guest of Queen Victoria, and Austria and Rome in 1846.

The quiet of the empire was not again disturbed until the agitation and uprisings of the masses in 1848 began to exert their influence, and cause the

monarchs of Europe to tremble for their thrones. All the subtlety of the emperor was called forth by this terrible crisis. His policy took a systematic form, and was prosecuted with incredible energy. The cause of monarchy, in the person of the young emperor of Austria, appealed to him for aid, to quench the rebellious spirit of Hungary, and he promptly responded in its defence. The immense power of his empire was brought into action to crush out the spirit of liberty and stop the tide of revolutionary principles that was reaching the borders of his own territory. When Hungary fell, and the lost power of the monarchs of Continental Europe was regained, the controlling influence of the czar over the destiny of nations was acknowledged with dread by the very powers that had sought his help in their hour of extremity.

The encroachment of Nicholas on the rights of the sultan of Turkey commenced some time before the final outbreak in 1853. We do not anticipate the verdict of posterity, when we say that on a mere pretence and in open contempt of the laws of national sovereignty, the emperor invaded, spoiled and seized the territory of a neighbor, and undertook to dictate laws, and assume the control of a portion of his subjects. The remote and immediate causes which influenced the prosecution of the conflict by the parties now engaged in it are so interwoven with the political intrigues of the sovereigns of Europe to maintain the balance of power, according to their selfish aspiration for supremacy and aggrandizement, that they belong rather to the history of nations than the life of an individual. The alliance of the western powers in behalf of Turkey had no terrors for Nicholas, as alone he entered on the contest. There was something portentous in the spectacle of one man holding so large a portion of the Old World, and still enlarging his ambition and extending his conquests, still stretching his policy, at the age of sixty, and after a reign of thirty years. Great conquerors have commonly been cut short either by the stroke of disease, or the hand of an assassin, or the fickleness of fortune, at a much earlier age, and it seemed something reserved for this century to see one continually spreading the meshes of a subtle policy and an iron dominion wider and wider for a whole generation. But man has his limits. Flesh and blood are not equal to the grasp of ambition and the scope of the mind. By the concurrent testimony all who have known the Emperor Nicholas, he was such a man as the ancients magnified into a demigod—herculean in his very frame, of uncommon stature, beauty and grace, born to be a king of men—such a one as William the Conqueror, or Charlemagne. Nothing this world could supply for itself or borrow from the unseen was wanting to feed his ambition, to exalt his genius, to assist his undertakings. From the beginning of his reign he showed that he inherited and grasped, as in one possession, all the accumulated hopes and illusions of his dynasty. Secure as he felt from the West, he prepared at once for the conquest of the East. A check to any of his plans only taught him to lay deeper the foundation of dominion, and for thirty years he never ceased, above ground or underground, to push his scheme of universal empire. The race, however, was with time, and when he found his own life ebbing apace, at the approach of an epoch which for ages had been designated for the triumph of the Cross over the Crescent at Constantinople, he could no longer restrain himself, and broke loose, as a river from its banks, for the conquest of the world.

For two years all Europe beheld with increasing astonishment how one man, assuming and exercising all the attributes of absolute power, and therefore having himself alone to rely upon, could maintain a single-handed struggle against a world of statesmen, diplomatists, generals, and admirals, representing all the art and science of the civilized world. Collecting continually fresh determination and vigor from each phase of the struggle, yet provoking a still deeper phalanx and still wider circle of foes, he stood at last in a position of which it is not too much to say that, as regards either side, and as respects

either of the questions at issue or the tremendous armaments employed, the world had not seen the like before, or anything near to it. But then, as in the famous statue of his great ancestor, having surmounted the dizzy height, he stood with the precipice before him. The alternate blows of the conflict had indeed thickened around him. Nation after nation heard the call to arms. England changed an administration of peace for one of war, and took for her chief the worst reputed enemy of the czar. Her disasters only quickened her animosity and her zeal; she sent another army, she doubled her navy, substituted iron for wood, and prepared to enter every inlet and harbor in Russia; she was taking measures as if for a permanent settlement in the Crimea, and sending the iron heel of the locomotive to insult the sacred soil. France was despatching legion after legion, and her emperor was on the point of braving the fury of the czar in his own cherished stronghold. Austria was showing the "gigantic ingratitude" which Russia was some time before warned to expect. Prussia was at least no longer safe to Russia. A smaller state had contributed fifteen thousand men to the allies, without even the ceremony of declaring war. Thus, the whole of Europe was rising, in succession, against the common enemy. At this passage of his fortunes, we see the czar rising with the occasion; defending his policy, protesting against that of his foes, opening negotiations, fighting at once with words and with arms, weighing phrases and organizing measures. We see him stamp, as it were, on the ground, and call new armies from its surface. We see him arm the whole empire. We see him set in motion the whole of his million armed men toward the south, directing routes, and preparing magazines at the extremity of his empire; we see him send two sons to the battle, and even, it was said, prepare himself to follow; we see him pledge to the very utmost the credit of his empire to obtain the necessary resources; there is not an act of government or of conquest that we do not see him perform on the direst emergency and the vastest scale. Seriously menaced along many thousand miles of frontier by land and by sea, the enemy within sound of his capital, with his fortresses beleaguered or actually destroyed, his commerce shut up, his merchants ruined, he nevertheless, with his own vast intellect, directed the whole war and maintained the resistance of that one ægis, as it were, against innumerable dangers. There never was the man of such an adamant frame as to stand this superhuman task. In this fellest struggle and this darkest hour, the emperor Nicholas, still tightening his grasp, still stretching his ken, still wielding more gigantic weapons, still calling louder to his vassals, and rising higher in his tone, at the fullest tension of his heart, mind, and soul, and every sense preternaturally quickened to the last, suddenly succumbed to the law of mortality, snapped at full bend, fallen at full flight, and, like that most formidable foe of his house, whose representative, by a strange chance, he saw once more invading his soil—

"Left a name at which the world grew pale,
To point a moral or adorn a tale."

He died at St. Petersburg, March 2, 1855, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the thirtieth of his reign.

Sir Archibald Alison, the historian, has given the following striking analysis of the character of Nicholas:—

"Nicholas I. was the greatest sovereign that Russia has known since Peter the Great; in some respects he was greater than Peter himself. Not less energetic in character and ardent in improvement than his illustrious predecessor, he was more thoroughly rational, and he had brought the nation forward more completely in the path which nature had pointed out for it. Nicholas was essentially Russian in all his ideas. He was heart and soul patriotic, not merely in wish, but in spirit and thought. He wished to improve and elevate his country, and he did much to effect that noble object; but he desired to do so

by developing, not changing the national spirit, by making it become a first Russia, not a second France or England. He adopted the maxim of Montesquieu, that no nation ever attained a real greatness but by institutions in conformity with its spirit. He was neither led away by the thirst for sudden mechanical improvement, like Peter, nor the praises of philosophers, like Catherine, nor the visions of inexperienced philanthropy, like Alexander. He did not attempt to erect a capital in a pestilential marsh, at the expense of a hundred thousand lives; nor dream of mystical regeneration with a visionary sybil, and make sovereigns put their hands to a holy alliance from her influence. He neither corresponded with French atheists, nor English democrats; he despised the praise of the first, he braved the hostility of the last. His maxim was to take them as they were, and suppose them neither better nor worse. He was content to let Russia grow up in a Russian garb, animated with a Russian spirit, and moulded by Russian institutions, without the aid of either Parisian communism or British liberalism. The improvements he effected in the government of his dominions were vast, the triumphs with which his external policy was attended unbounded; but they were all achieved, not in imitation of, but in opposition to, the ideas of western Europe. They bespoke, not less than his internal government, the national character of his policy. But if success is the test of worldly wisdom, he was not far wrong in his system, for he passed the Balkan, heretofore impervious to his predecessors; he conquered Poland, converted the Euxine into a Russian lake, planted the cross on the bastions of Erivan, and opened through subdued Hungary a path to Constantinople.

"Nature gave him all the qualities fitted for such an elevated destiny. A lofty stature and princely air gave additional influence to a majestic countenance, in which the prevailing character was resolution, yet not unmixed with sweetness.* Like Wellington, Cæsar, and many others of the great men recorded in history, his expression had become more intellectual as he advanced in years, and became exercised in the duties of sovereignty, instead of the stern routine of military discipline. Exemplary in all the relations of private life, a faithful husband and an affectionate father, he exhibited in a brilliant court, and when surrounded by every temptation which life can offer, the simplicity and affections of patriarchal life. Yet was he not a perfect character. His virtues often bordered upon vices. His excellences were akin to defects. Deeply impressed with the responsibility of his situation, his firmness sometimes became sternness, his sense of justice degenerated into severity. He knew how to distinguish the innocent from the guilty, and often evinced a noble and magnanimous spirit in separating the one from the other, and showing oblivion of injury, even kindness to the relatives of those who had conspired against his throne and life; but toward the guilty themselves he was not equally compassionate. He did not always let the passion of the contest pass away with its termination. He was an Alexander the Great in resolution, but not in magnanimity. He wanted the last grace in the heroic character—he did not know how to forgive."

We give the following anecdotes of Nicholas for the purpose of illustrating traits in his character, more forcibly than can be done by lengthy details:—

The emperor did much to break up the serfdom of the peasants to the nobles, by almost entirely freeing the serfs attached to the crown lands. In 1837, vast properties were purchased by the crown in the districts of Vologda. The mujiks of the surrounding lands, excited by the sight of the privileges acquired by the new serfs of the emperor, sent a deputation to St. Petersburg to beg the czar to buy them also. The czar received it very well. "I wish

* Nicholas was very tall and magnificently proportioned, being over six feet in height. He never appeared but in uniform. There was something at once wild and cold in the glance of his green-blue eyes, which, says one, "pierce through and through as with the points of two freezing icicles: a cold pang seizes one's whole being on receiving their glare."

"I could satisfy you," he replied, "but it would be necessary for me to buy the whole of Russia. My most lively desire, my children, is to see you free, and I will do all that is possible in order to obtain your liberty."

In the early part of his reign Nicholas was accessible to truth, hearing *remonstrances* patiently, sometimes thankfully. He allowed the criticism of abuses through books and dramatic representations. He combated with all his might and tried to eradicate the boundless venality and corruption that were practised by his officials. But in the last years of his life a change took place. He had authorized the old Prince Galitsin, the governor-general of Moscow, to address him frankly, and to inform him if any of his acts were unpalatable to the national spirit. The prince, enjoying the highest esteem of the public, as well as an elevated social and official position, sometimes, though very seldom, made use of this confidential permission. For a period his observations were graciously received. But on one occasion, when he forewarned the sovereign about a measure which was not at all welcome to the nation, the despot told him: "Prince, you are becoming revolutionary: once I wanted advisers, now I can rule by myself without them."

His mother inspired him with a rigidity of principles, and with a religious respect for his own word. Thus he had a scrupulous honesty and regard for truth. One of the leaders of the conspiracy was Prince Troubetskoi. His papers were seized unbeknown to him. He was ordered to appear before the emperor, to whom he denied all connection with the revolt, and affected entire ignorance concerning the conspiracy. The monarch showed him his own papers, and those of his accomplices, which had been laid before him. Some of them were written in Troubetskoi's hand; others bore his signature; and, in others, his name occurred in each sentence. Finding now that further denial was useless, he fell at the emperor's feet, craved his mercy, and prayed for his life. "It is granted," Nicholas replied, with dignity. "Sit down and write to the princess; I will dictate the letter." Troubetskoi seated himself, and mechanically wrote as his sovereign dictated: "*Ja sdarof*, I am well;" but when he heard the further words, "*i ia boudou sdarof*, and my life will be spared," he hesitated. "Write and seal," cried the sovereign in an imperious tone; he trembled, and obeyed. The emperor then said to him, "If you have courage to support a life dishonored and devoted to remorse, I grant it to you, but it is all that I promise," and turned away in disgust.

The exchange of eggs and salutes—the offering party saying, "Christ is risen," and the receiving one replying, "Verily risen," the parties then kissing each other—is well known to be one of the Easter rites of the Greek church, cheerfully performed by all, and was particularly so by Nicholas, who, in all matters of religious observance, always set the first example. Returning to his palace from the early mass, after having gone through with this ceremony with those who were present in the church, he observed a sentinel at his post, immediately approached him, and offered the egg and salute, saying, "Christ is risen." The sentinel replied, "No such thing," and declined the honor of being embraced by his sovereign. The czar, in utter astonishment, exclaimed, "Who are you, sir?"—"I am a Hebrew," was the answer. "I beg your pardon, sir, I did not know it," said his majesty, and passed on.

It was his practice to invite the pupils of the naval and military schools to pass a day with him at his summer retreat, not as their emperor but as one of themselves, and to engage with them in their sports. On one occasion, as related by an actor in the scene, the czar challenged the boys to wrestle with him, and it took twenty of them, from eighteen to twenty years of age, to bring him to the ground. There lay the mighty colossus, fairly pinned down, and held a prostrate prisoner, when the empress appeared a petitioner in his behalf, and, with the contents of a basket of *bon-bons*, redeemed the captive!

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JAN 3 - 1927

